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# South African Distance Runners: Issues Involving Their International Careers During and After Apartheid

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South African Distance Runners: Issues Involving  
Their International Careers During and After Apartheid  
(TITLE)

BY

Carrie A. Lane

**THESIS**

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF

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CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

1999

YEAR

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## ABSTRACT

While some sports in South Africa have a distinct racial identity, distance running is one of the most popular sports in the country for people of all ethnic backgrounds. This study examined the issues that South African distance runners faced from the time the country was banned from Olympic competition, in 1968, to the present day. It profiled 21 male and female elite and collegiate runners who have competed in the United States from 1980 to 1999.

Because of South Africa's apartheid government, which legalized racial segregation and inequality, South African sport was excluded from international competition for 32 years. The nation's athletes could only compete within the country, and their achievements were not to be recognized by any sport federation outside of the country. Despite these odds, many distance runners found ways to compete against the best in the world.

In 1992, when apartheid rule ended, South African membership was widely accepted into international sport federations. While runners are now allowed to compete anywhere in the world, they face a new set of challenges living in a newly democratic society.

This paper provides a history of South African sport and distance running from the late 1960's to present-day. It then introduces specific South African runners who competed internationally during and after the boycott. Their diverse stories and opinions on issues of running in South Africa are discussed. The study also offers the knowledge and insight of South African coaches, agents, journalists, scholars, and administrators who have credible experience in dealing with the vastly complicated web of South African distance running.

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This study is dedicated to the many South African athletes whose achievements are even more remarkable when considering the extraordinary circumstances under which they took place.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze the South African distance running community by examining several successful distance runners from that country who came to the United States to train and compete. The study documented and compared the paths of 21 South African distance runners of various cultural backgrounds, ages, and abilities. After narrating the story of each runner, the study then explored the issues the runners face in post-apartheid South Africa.

### Need for the Study

Apartheid was the official policy of rule in South Africa from 1948 to 1994. Under this governmental system, all non-white South Africans were denied the same rights as the white residents of the country. Laws were created which forced non-whites to live as second, third, and fourth class citizens. Anti-apartheid activism, both domestically and internationally, was prevalent and often stimulated violence. The government reacted to this activism by increasing the brutality of its police force and creating more oppressive laws for non-whites. As the United Nations (UN) and its members became aware of the atrocities occurring in the country, they imposed various military, economic, and political sanctions on South Africa.

Twenty years after the apartheid regime took power, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) officially banned South Africa from membership. Many major international sport federations followed suit and barred South African membership from their organizations. During this massive sport boycott, athletes from other countries were prohibited from competing in South Africa. South Africans were also restricted from most international sporting events. The individual achievements of South Africans, regardless of where they occurred, were not internationally recognized.



Distance running in South Africa is an incredibly popular sport, and the respect with which the country's highly accomplished distance runners have been treated has been compared to the recognition that is given in the United States to professional football, baseball, or basketball players. While a handful of South African distance runners found ways to compete internationally during the ban, most remained in South Africa, racing only against their fellow countrymen and women.

Sweeping political changes occurred in South Africa during the early 1990's. The IOC declared on 9 July 1991 that it officially recognized South Africa's Olympic Committee (United Nations, 1994, 160). If the country's committee adhered to the conditions of the recognition, it would be able to compete in the 1992 Olympics-- its first Olympics in thirty-two years. The international ban on sport dissolved shortly after this July event. The first democratic elections in South Africa were held on 26-29 April 1994 (UN, 1994, 165). These events gave South African runners the freedom to compete and live wherever they chose. However, in the young democracy, many runners are experiencing new challenges in training and competing.

The country's running community is in a unique situation. Runners now have many more opportunities available to them to compete and train, but their financial and organizational needs are still not being met. This study provided an historical analysis of South African politics, sports, and athletics, and it profiled current and former South African distance runners who competed in the United States. The paper brought to light several questions about the state of running and sport in the newly democratized South Africa. It then analyzed trends in the South African distance running community.

### Procedure

The sources of information for this study were South African distance runners who compete or competed at American universities, South African professional distance runners

who compete or competed in road races and other track and cross country meets in the United States, and a variety of coaches, agents, and administrators involved in the sport. These people provided information on their own backgrounds, the circumstances under which they came to the United States, and the progression of their running and professional careers. They also offered their opinions on the past and present problems of distance running and sport in South Africa. Information was obtained through interviews, which included preconceived questions and spontaneous comments of the subjects (see Appendices A, B, and C). The interviews were conducted by phone, in person, or via e-mail. Follow-up information was requested as needed.

Publications from the United States and South Africa were also consulted. The publications included books, magazines, websites, newspapers, meet results, and sports information press releases. This literature provided information on the history of sport and running in South Africa. The publications also reported on the current situation in South African running, which experienced major restructuring when apartheid collapsed and separate racial sporting organizations united into bodies that represented all races. Newspaper, magazine, and internet articles documented the careers and major events of the lives of several professional runners. Sports information offices at universities provided additional literature on many of the collegiate runners, which included meet results, individuals' personal backgrounds, and their career highlights.

### Limitations

Although running is a major sport in South Africa, relatively few books and journal articles written by South Africans could be referred to in checking the history of the sport in that country. Much of the history of non-white runners has not been recorded. Therefore, many European and American sources were relied upon. Newspaper articles, websites, and the stories from European and American sources were relied upon to compile information regarding the past and present state of South African running.

The percentage of black and female South African runners who come to study in the United States was accurately reflected in the small number who were profiled in this project. However, the number of professional black South African distance runners did not correlate with the number of those runners who were subjects for this study. Many lived in South Africa and came to the United States for only a few weeks or months during the year to train and compete. While in South Africa, they were difficult to reach and were not always proficient in English, which severely hindered a phone interview. Efforts were made to contact several black runners through their agents, but in some cases, no response was received.

### Definitions of Terms

African- Racial classification established by the Population Registration Act of 1950. Refers to people of black African heritage.

Afrikaans- Language of Afrikaners.

Afrikaner- Cultural group of Dutch heritage who migrated to South Africa in search of religious freedom.

Apartheid- Policy to mandate separation of races. Initiated in South Africa in 1948 under the ruling of the Afrikaner National Party.

Athletics- A term used to describe all forms of track and field, cross country, and road race competition.

Boer- Afrikaner farmer.

College- In South Africa, refers to high school with curriculum for university preparation.

Coloured- Racial classification established under the Population Registration Act of 1950. Describes those whose ancestors are a combination of black, white, Indonesian, Malaysian, Indian, or Arab. Most coloureds have a hue darker than whites' but lighter than blacks'.

Distance runner- Any athlete who competes in running events above 800 meters.

Elite runner- see Professional runner.

Integration- Process of desegregating all areas of South African society, including political bodies, sports organizations, and schools.

Intercollegiate- In American sport, the athletic contests that occur between teams sponsored by institutions of higher education.

International accomplishments and best times- Any achievement attained while living in a country other than the United States or South Africa.

Junior- Division of competition under 21 years of age.

Multi-racial- In sport, a policy which allows people of any ethnic background to compete, train, and establish organizations, but still enforces the racial divisions in competition.

Non-racial- In sport, a policy which does not distinguish between races in any competition, training, or organization.

Post-collegiate- Period in a career after graduating from a university.

Professional runner- A distance runner who earns money from race awards, sponsorships, and endorsements and whose primary career is training and racing. A professional runner is considered an elite runner because of the high level of success he or she attains in racing.

South Africa accomplishments and best times- Any achievement attained while competing in South Africa.

Springbok- Small, gazelle-like animal that is distinguishable by its unique jumping ability.

The springbok emblem was established by Afrikaners as the national symbol of South African sport teams. It has correlation to the national rugby team.

Student-athlete- A school or university student who is also a participant in athletics.

United States accomplishments and best times- Any achievement attained while living in South Africa.

Sotho, Venda, Xhosa, Zulu- Ethnic groups in South Africa.

### Acronyms

ANC- African National Congress

ANOCA- Association of African National Olympic Committees

ASA- Athletics South Africa

IAAF- International Amateur Athletics Federation

ICAAS- International Conference Against Apartheid in Sport (Zimbabwe)

IOC- International Olympic Committee

NCAA- National Collegiate Athletic Association (United States)

NSC- National Sports Council

PAC- Pan-Africanist Congress

RAC- Rand Athletics Club

S.A.- South Africa

SAAAA- South African Amateur Athletics Association

SAAAB- South African Amateur Athletics Board

SAAAC- South African Amateur Athletics Congress

SAAAF- South African Amateur Athletics Federation

SAAAU- South African Amateur Athletics Union

SACOS- South African Council on Sport

SAONGA- South African Olympic and National Games Association

SANROC- South African Non- Racial Olympic Committee

SARB- South African Rugby Board

SARRA- South African Road Running Association

SASA- South African Sporting Association

SMU- Southern Methodist University (U.S)

TAC- The Athletics Congress (U.S.)

UCB- United Cricket Board (South Africa)

U.S.- United States

USATF- United States of America Track and Field (Formerly TAC)

WKU- Western Kentucky University (U.S.)

## CHAPTER II

### SOUTH AFRICAN POLITICAL HISTORY

#### Colonialism

The European colonialism of southern Africa began in the 1650s when Dutch and British trading companies established outposts on the Cape for traders traveling between Europe and India, Arabia, and Asia. As with any colonization process, conflict arose between the Europeans and the indigenous black populations when many in the latter group were displaced or forced into slavery in the Cape area. Conflict also culminated between the Dutch and English settlers, who were vying for land rights for farms and ports.

By 1906, the British colonialists gained governmental control, and in 1910, the British government in South Africa established a racially exclusive parliamentary system (Thompson, 1995, 146-153). Blacks suffered the most under white rule, which excluded them from voting, owning land, and establishing businesses. As the country experienced industrialization, the migration of non-whites to urban areas increased dramatically over the first half of the twentieth century. Laws were passed to keep blacks in slum areas (townships), and to lower their wages (Nauright, 1997, 62). The economic gap between whites and non-whites widened, and the latter fell into inferior social, political, and economic positions.

Meanwhile, many Afrikaner farmers, or Boers, began migrating from the Cape to the highveld areas of the Orange Free State and Gauteng in hopes of opening mining companies and claiming vast amounts of farmland. Under British rule, Afrikaner pride grew strong. Similar to post-World War II Jews, who asserted their perceived rights to live in and rule over Israel, the Boers felt entitled to rule the country to which they migrated (Dollman, 1999). Afrikaners developed a strong cultural bond that penetrated all aspects of their lives, from political parties to sport organizations and competition. This pride is still a major cultural consideration that South Africans must deal with.

### Apartheid is Official

The Boers' bond grew stronger when their own National Party (NP) became the majority in 1948. Under the leadership of D.F. Malan, apartheid became the official form of rule. Several oppressive acts of legislation were passed in the 1950s, which took away virtually all rights for non-whites. The most draconian law was the Population Registration Act of 1950 which divided people into certain race classifications based upon cultural and family background and skin colour. This largely arbitrary classification system remained intact for forty years and resulted in four classes: white, Indian-- or Asian, coloured, and African-- or native (Byrnes, 1997, 55). The racial groups were subsequently given vastly unequal rights and laws. The whites had the most personal freedom with fewer freedom and representation allotted to the Indians, coloureds, and Africans, respectively. Although the laws restricting the rights of the different groups are now gone, the system is so ingrained in society that the classification terms are still used commonly in post- apartheid society.

Laws designed to reduce interaction between the racial groups resulted in unequal economic and political growth, and the social inequality penetrated every sphere of life in South Africa. Each race had its own public transportation, restaurants, marriage laws, toilets, schools, sporting facilities and competitions, and areas in which to live and work. Pass laws required non-whites to carry permits when traveling to work in white urban areas. The passes were difficult to obtain and had to be updated regularly. If a black person could not produce this document on command, he or she was promptly arrested (Thompson, 1995, 193). Police efforts to uphold pass laws and other regulations frequently turned violent. Additionally, representation and voting rights gradually diminished for all non-whites by 1961 (Hain, 1971, 21).

### Resistance Movements

During the 1950s, non-white resistance organizations began to gain momentum. The African National Congress (ANC) transformed itself from a violent renegade group to a



prominent people's association. Due to its organized campaigns and demonstrations, its membership increased from 7,000 to 100,000 in one year (Mortimer, 1997, 58). As activist groups from different races unified, the efficiency of the anti-apartheid campaigns, sponsored by the ANC and other groups, greatly improved.

In 1959, a nationalistic branch broke from the ANC and named itself the Pan-Africanist Congress (PAC). In March 1960, the PAC led a peaceful protest in the Sharpeville township, to speak out against pass laws. The police fired on the demonstrators, killing sixty-seven and wounding 186. Most of the dead were shot in the back (Worger, 1997, 61). This and countless other tragic stories began to make international headlines, and soon the United Nations (UN) took a substantial role in involvement. The Sharpeville Massacres prompted the UN to adopt a resolution deploring the South African government and its actions. Security Council Resolution 134, section 4 "calls upon the Government of the Union of South Africa to. . . abandon its policies of apartheid and racial discrimination" (UN, 1994, 244). This policy was adopted in April 1960 and was the first statement of the Security Council which both recognized and condemned the policies of apartheid (UN, 1994, 8).

Within the country, there were several leaders who worked tirelessly to educate people of all races on the inhumane atrocities occurring in the non-white areas of the country. Nelson Mandela, who was an officer in the ANC, was one of these people. In 1963, he and several other ANC officers were tried for treason, and Mandela was sentenced to life imprisonment on Robben Island prison. To millions across the country, Mandela's captivity provided a cause to fight for; a hopeful symbol that remains apparent to this day.

Most resistance movements were outlawed by the early sixties. Leaders from the ANC, PAC, and others were forced to continue operations either underground or in exile in places like Europe, Southern Rhodesia (later, Zimbabwe), and Nigeria. Many countries took the initiative to boycott economic, social, and political relations with South Africa, causing severe financial strain to the country. Along with oil embargoes and trade sanctions, the international community even excluded South Africa from the most prominent forum of cross-

cultural sporting competition. In 1968, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) officially banned South Africa from membership and from participation in the Olympic games until the country disbanded apartheid and could provide equal opportunities for Olympic team qualification to all of its citizens (Guide to Olympic Crisis, 1968, 14).

### Transition

The system of separate development contributed heavily to the severe financial and military demise that South Africa experienced in the seventies and eighties. It was incredibly costly to maintain a police force which enforced the numerous apartheid laws and to build a strong military defense against increasing threats from the black governments of Mozambique and Zimbabwe. South Africa felt pressure domestically and internationally, and it became apparent that the toppling of apartheid was inevitable.

In 1989, N.P. leader, F.W. DeKlerk began negotiating with the ANC. In 1991, Nelson Mandela was released and elected president of the ANC. Mandela was the "personification of the struggle" (Ottoway, 1994, 32), and his release and subsequent election brought new meaning to the hope that Mandela symbolized for over thirty years.

The late eighties and early nineties were a time of tremendous violence in South Africa. As non-whites' freedom of speech increased, they began demanding immediate retribution for the eighty years of oppression they endured. Blacks wanted their family farms back, and they wanted complete control of government. Many demanded financial aid that the country, due to its lagging economy, simply could not afford. Extremist Afrikaner groups were also engaged in fierce protest of the negotiations and were unwilling to concede their political power to the blacks. None the less, negotiations between the major political groups continued and the first truly democratic elections took place in April, 1994.

### New Challenges

Five years after Nelson Mandela was elected the first black president of South Africa, the reform process has hit some inevitable bumps in the road. After making some heady promises, including recovery of black property rights, equal education, and increased employment for non-whites, the ANC has had problems in trying to remedy nearly 200 years of inequality within a period of five years.

Employment is the largest issue of concern, and its problems trickle to all sectors of society. The Economist wrote in 1998 that "a third of the workforce" is unemployed and as much as seventy percent of unskilled rural black women are unemployed (Out of Work, 1998, 49). A lagging economy does not help, as the creation of new positions is rare.

Such a high unemployment rate and feeling of betrayal by the ANC has caused frustration and lingering racism among all ethnic backgrounds. Crime rates have always been high, but now robberies, carjackings, murders, and rapes are occurring more frequently in traditionally white areas of the country (Gordon, 1998, 17).

Not that all hope is lost, however. Howard Wolpe of The Brookings Institute, the American political think-tank, writes that the "majority of South Africans are enormously upbeat. . . [about the] racial reconciliation and nation-building" that has gone on there for the past five years (Wolpe, 1996, 47). Wolpe contends that the media sensationalizes the violence and employment problems and fits the "preconceived story line[s]. . . against a backdrop of negative stereotypes" (Wolpe, 1996, 47).

Regardless of how South Africans view the progress of the new democracy, there is no doubt that patience is wearing thin. With no example to follow or expert to consult, South Africans face an arduous and daunting task of eliminating apartheid at all levels in society.

## CHAPTER III

### SOUTH AFRICAN SPORT HISTORY

#### Background

As in politics, change in sport has not been smooth in South Africa. Many of the attitudes and problems that have existed in government and society have penetrated and heavily influenced sport competitions for the past century. Sport in South Africa has paralleled the country's politics virtually since colonization. Due to separate living areas and socio-economic backgrounds, blacks and whites rarely mixed on the playing fields. By 1910, whites, indians, coloureds and africans each had their own set of national sport organizations. The complexity and inequity of the sport federation system in South Africa made for a difficult integration process once apartheid legislation was abandoned.

#### Traditions in Race and Sport

Rugby was the game of choice for Afrikaners, and the nearly unified devotion of the Boers to the sport has carried political undertones since the 1900s. The Boers used rugby as a cultural rallying cry-- not only in their aggressive style of play, but also in administration of the sport. Until the 1980s, the all-white South African Rugby Board (SARB) prohibited black participation in, or spectating of, rugby games at the national and international levels (Archer & Bouillon, 1982, 60). Rugby was declared the official sport of South Africa, and the national team proudly wore the Springbok emblem, which has been a point of controversy since the whites first adopted it as the national sporting seal in 1906 (Nauright 1997, 83).

The sport of cricket has been a major source of sporting pride for British South Africans, (this includes the South African Indian population, whose migration to the country was largely a result of British Commonwealth ties). While cricket enjoyed a more colorful racial following, segregation was still apparent. At the same time that British missionaries introduced cricket to the black bourgeoisie and black schools, laws continued to restrict black

cricketers mixing with whites. As with rugby competition, tours of South African rebel cricket teams, which occurred well into the 1980s, were a means of maintaining close ties with the white nations of the Commonwealth.

Soccer, boxing, and distance running were typically the Africans' sports of choice in South Africa. Interest developed in the urban and mining communities, which were dominated by blacks. In order to keep workers from migrating to the cities, the mines sponsored sport and entertainment programs, which included soccer, boxing, and running competitions between mining company workers. English missionaries also contributed to the rise in popularity of soccer among blacks by including it in the educational curriculum of mission schools.

Like rugby and cricket in the white communities, soccer has played a political role throughout the years for black South Africans. Its popularity within the mining company leagues brought people of different ethnicities together, and games have been used as forums for political speeches (Nauright, 1997, 122). Although national soccer organizations existed, the sport was still largely localized, due to lack of money, transport, political power, and communication by the administrators of the leagues. While a handful of blacks became eligible to play soccer for teams abroad, the most skilled players in the townships and on the mining teams enjoyed great adulation among their local black spectators.

### Protest Movements in Sport

As in politics, the black sporting resistance movement lacked resources and organization during the early 20th century. However, in 1958, the South African Sporting Association (SASA) was formed as a non-racial blanket sports organization. It campaigned for the creation of national bodies which did not recognize color differences (non-racial). SASA's leader and founder, Dennis Brutus, worked with unyielding motivation to enhance the organization and reputation of SASA. By May of 1960, SASA had over 70,000 members from eleven sports (Merrett, 1996, 148).

In 1960, after failing to reconcile differences within the association, SASA dissolved, and Brutus founded the South African Non-Racial Olympic Council (SANROC). The goal of this council was to make the Olympic movement aware of the injustices it committed by allowing South Africa to compete in the international event. From 1908 to 1960, South African Olympic teams consisted solely of white athletes (Nauright, 1997, 45). This segregation reflected overt disregard for the Olympic Charter, which does not allow discrimination of any kind in selecting national teams. SANROC wanted to make the heavily European-based International Olympic Committee (IOC) aware of the inequity that was rampant in South African sport. In 1960, SANROC was still a young organization, and it lacked the influence it needed to keep South Africa out of the Rome Olympics that year. But as the decade wore on, the unheeding efforts of SANROC and other activists abroad made the international community conscious of the blatant racism occurring on a massive scale in South African sport and society.

### Increasing Global Awareness

In 1968, the IOC dealt South Africa a large blow when it officially revoked South African membership. After this ban on Olympic competition and involvement, several other international sport organizations relinquished South Africa's membership until apartheid was abolished.

SANROC's leader, Dennis Brutus, was exiled from South Africa in 1963, forcing SANROC to operate from London. While his council accomplished a major goal in finally getting an official IOC ban, SANROC could only do so much for sport in South Africa. Its spirit and cause were intensely supported by the international community, but most South Africans saw disorganization and disunity within the exiled association (Guide to Olympic Crisis, 1968, 14).

While the IOC, the UN, and several other international sporting organizations publicly condemned apartheid sport, the boycott was not adhered to at all times. The South African

government attempted to defend its 'separate but equal' sporting policies, going so far as to claim that it made some concessions to integrate. However, on 16 June 1960, the Ministry of the Interior released this policy, which made quite clear the stance the government took on apartheid sport:

The government does not favour inter-racial competitions within the borders of the Union and will discourage such competitions taking place as contrary to the traditional policy... Whites and Non-Whites should organise their sporting activities separately (Merrett, 1996, 147).

Cricket and rugby, not under the watchful eye of the IOC and the favorite sports of those in government, continued to engage in international competition. The country's cricketers often played on teams touring Great Britain. Germany, New Zealand, Great Britain, and Australia played in rebel tours with South Africa through the seventies and eighties, despite adamant protest. In fact, rugby experienced a complete ban only from 1986 to 1992 (Nauright, 1997, 91).

Sports officials worked hard to maintain their overseas contacts even at the height of international protest. It was as if the whites wanted to keep solid international relations to show the blacks and the rest of the world that despite all the protest and bans, whites were still in control in South Africa. What better way to illustrate this to the masses than through sport?

#### South African Council on Sport (SACOS)

Another non-racial sport organization, called SACOS, emerged in 1973 when protests against sport integration were more desperate. The council, run by urban coloureds in the Cape, possessed higher visibility than SANROC because it operated out of South Africa. Originally, SACOS clung to the ideal that sport and politics did not mix. However, politics inevitably affected the progress of the group because it lacked the resources and finances to initiate a well-oiled machine of sport activism. Its non-white members were scattered

throughout the country in homelands, townships, and rural districts, all of which were difficult areas to establish central communication and cooperation.

The idea that sport transcended politics began to dissolve in South Africa in the seventies as political protests, both in country and overseas, gained strength and legitimacy. As SACOS entered negotiations with sporting organizations to convince them to support non-racial selection policies for their teams, its leaders began to realize that the problem of segregation went much deeper than sport. Hassan Hawa, leader of SACOS from 1977 to 1981 and former president of the South African Cricket Board, illustrated the shift in thinking of athletes and administrators in South Africa:

Only recently did I become aware that to think only about cricket was wrong. . . I admit now that I should not have fought from a cricket angle. I should have fought from a completely humanitarian angle. I should have carried the fight right down the line. . . My standards were wrong. . . Probably I've become aware of politics.

I don't know exactly what caused me to change my views, too many factors are involved, but undoubtedly the riots of last year [in Soweto] were a great influence. Nobody in his right sense, even people who are white who saw what was going on, can shrug those events off. Least of all me (Archer and Boullion, 1982, v).

Hawa focused the direction of the council's efforts in the late seventies towards mixing sport and social conscience. He coined the phrase, 'no normal sport in an abnormal society'; a phrase that will forever be synonymous with organization.

Because of SACOS' clear stance that sport was simply one issue among many that were affected by political abhorations, many athletes turned away from SACOS membership. Despite the racism inherent in the establishment sport organizations, most of the country's best athletes joined these groups because they could compete without addressing the country's social and political problems.



### International Sport Boycott Gains Strength

Despite minimal political activism by many South African athletes and officials, the effect of the global boycott continued to increase throughout the seventies and eighties. Thanks to a handful of South African and international athletes, as well as the anti-apartheid organizations around the world, most sports formally banned relations with the pariah nation by the late seventies. The country's international cricket and rugby ties dissolved by the eighties (although several unofficial tours continued). According to the United Nations, South Africans were excluded from twenty-three international sporting associations by 1982. In 1987, the International Conference Against Apartheid in Sport (ICAAS) estimated that South Africa was barred from ninety percent of world sporting activities (Allen, 1988, 56). 'Exclusion' involved: a country's condemnation of apartheid in sport and politics, denial of visas to athletes and teams whose countries condoned apartheid, and prohibition of membership of apartheid countries in regional or international bodies (Apartheid in Sports, 1982, 38-9).

Indeed, exclusion was felt most intensely by whites who wanted desperately to maintain competition with European, Australian, and New Zealander brethren. In his article on post-apartheid sport, C. Roger Rees illustrates the point that the sports boycott was highly effective:

Given the centrality of sport to life in White South Africa, the sports ban did more than any of the other international boycotts to reinforce the sense of isolation among South Africans (Rees, 1996, 23-4).

SANROC and other non-racial sporting organizations on the continent were happy with the progress they made and with the international credibility they gained. SANROC was called "one of the most effective lobbies worldwide" (Allen, 1988, 56).

While the international community cooperated in excluding South Africa from sport, very little effort for integration was actually made in South Africa until the nineties. An investigation of sport facilities in 1987 found that distribution was in fact still severely unequal. White South Africans owned and used seventy-three percent of all athletics tracks,

and eighty-four percent of swimming pools and cricket and rugby pitches. The inequity in the schools were just as bad, with white schools owning between eighty to ninety percent of all sport facilities (Allen, 1988, 57).

### Apartheid Abolished

The end of political apartheid came swiftly as F.W. DeKlerk, leader of the country since 1990, proclaimed that sweeping actions would be made to wipe out apartheid. Sport, of course, was included in these rapid changes, and in June 1990, the National Sports Council (NSC) was established within the government as the blanket non-racial sport organization (Booth, 1998, 177). In 1990, all sport factions, including SANROC, SACOS, the NSC, and ANOCA (Association of African National Olympic Committees), met in Harare, Zimbabwe to negotiate the changes that would have to be made to the vastly complicated organization of sport. Most members of the IOC wanted South Africa accepted in time for the 1992 Barcelona Olympics. After Harare, in which the organizations worked out some but not all of their differences, the IOC, ANOCA, and several other international sport federations established guidelines for official integration of sport. These stipulations included amalgamation of the different racial sport organizations into one unified association, in which each race enjoyed representation. The bodies had to compose constitutions which supported non-racialism, and they had to develop a plan showing "how future financial resources would be channeled into the disadvantaged majority. . . ." (Rees, 1996, 24).

On 9 July 1991, the International Olympic Committee officially welcomed South African membership. The IOC claimed it could see that the legislation for abolishment of apartheid was inevitable. Most international sport federations followed the lead of the IOC and also lifted their bans. South Africa has since received countless invitations for competition in and with other countries.

South Africa struggled, politically and economically, in establishing its first Olympic team in 32 years. Bearing the consequences of international economic sanctions, the country

failed to raise the goal amount of six million rand to sponsor the team. More importantly, the ratio of blacks to whites on the team was less than one to four (Miller, 1992, 26). As Rees states, "... one of the legacies of apartheid has been huge discrepancies in sporting opportunities for the white and the non-white communities" (Rees, 1996, 28). Naturally, whites had the advantage in nearly all Olympic trials, due to the fact that they grew up with the best facilities, training, and coaches. In the new democracy, blacks have a long way to go to catch up to whites' economic, and subsequent athletic, advantages.

Since the hasty integration of South African sport, there has been a movement, mainly among academics and former SACOS members, who feel the integration of sport in the post-apartheid era has been premature and "mostly a sham" (Booth, 1998, 182).

### Criticism of Integration Process

According to Willie Basson, president of the Confederation of South African Sport, and others, sport had two paths it could follow at the outset of the integration process. One approach to integration was to focus on the development of the elite sport programs, in order to get South Africa back on the international playing fields (i.e. Olympic Games, World Cups, Commonwealth Games, World Championships, etc.) as soon as possible. This would require mainly the help of private commercial funders who saw big money in sponsoring successful and highly visible athletes. The other direction sport development could take was to put efforts into educating the grassroots organizations. This course would require heavy government involvement in reaching out to schools, municipal sport associations, and provincial leaders. Developing a strong grassroots sport system would furnish a solid foundation for future young athletes who were previously faced with too many disadvantages to rise to national success.

The first option would satisfy the whites, who control the country's economic base and want desperately to see what their previously banned athletes could accomplish in the international arena. The second option, frequently called sport-for-all, would satisfy the

demands of the non-white masses who want rapid and visible change in distribution and development. Many agree that South Africa should implement a combination of the two, participating in some international events, while allocating sufficient funds to grassroots programs (Basson, 1993, 11).

According to critics, South Africa's acute focus on re-establishing its ties with elite international competitions was the wrong path to encourage sport integration and development. There was a strong case for staying out of the 1992 Olympics and focusing on the proper development of the sport organizations and the grassroots system. Waiting another four years would have been unfair to the many athletes with waning careers who trained hard in hopes of participating in the first Olympic Games for South Africa in 32 years. Regardless, the process by which integration occurred is indeed questionable.

#### New Management in Unified Associations

The NSC, seeking to compile a non-racial organization with representation from well-known sport activists, appointed many "black opportunists" who were leaders of inferior non-white sport organizations under the supremacist white associations (Booth, 1998, 182). New leaders of the NSC and other infant national sport organizations have been highly criticized for their inexperience, selfish goals, and impractical decisions.

The main problem with the new unified organizations is that, while they have incorporated non-white leaders into the management and figurehead positions, the powerbase and governing style have not changed (Roberts, 1992, 32). Little effort is being made to follow the sport-for-all mentality, as new leaders are essentially implementing the same structures as in the apartheid system but with much less protest. The causes of groups like SANROC and SACOS have been heavily muted by hype over desegregation and the defection of many leaders to the mainstream organizations. Plans for development programs have little actual funding, and as a result, unification occurring at the national and provincial levels has not made its way to the local efforts (Roberts, 1993, 45). Some South Africans involved in

sport administration, feel leaders within the growing sport bureaucracy are usurping funds for their own salaries and benefits, and the sports are suffering. For example, Bobby McGee coached runners in South Africa during and after the ban and dealt with SACOS and the establishment athletics organizations for many years. He claims that while Athletics South Africa (ASA), the post-apartheid athletics body, has earned between 500 and 900 times the amount of money earned during apartheid athletics, the runners have seen little financial change. Instead, the money is directed to the ASA's multitude of new leaders (McGee, 1999). Additionally, charges of reverse discrimination have surfaced, as some administrators are pushing for quotas on Olympic teams until blacks reach the ability level to represent a national team based solely on merit (Fields Apart, 1995, 88).

### Promising Actions

Most associations have stumbled considerably in their unification and development efforts. Cricket and road running (not to be confused with athletics, which is overseen by ASA) are two of the few who have fared relatively well. For example, the United Cricket Board (UCB) has found a happy medium to satisfy both needs of the elite and the masses. With the increased international touring allowed to the cricket teams, the UCB allocates twenty percent of tour revenue to the cricket development funds. It offers another ten percent to a joint fund with athletics, soccer, and rugby (Booth, 1998, 193).

Road running has also done well to promote black participation. However, Reg Feldman, the current president of SACOS, states that this cannot necessarily be attributed to massive development efforts as much as the nature of the sport. Few facilities are required in road running, so equal distribution is of little concern. Historically, blacks have been the country's best road racers. Therefore, in order for the South African Road Running Association (SARRA) to survive, it has always honored the accomplishments and needs of its black members. Yet even Feldman says it is "safe to say" that road running has been one of the more progressive sports during and after apartheid (Feldman, 1999).

Most racial sport organizations within the country hastily integrated into one all-encompassing body. Critics feel South Africa should have first been able to prove that the government and sports world were committed to long-term changes. Any changes made in haste to please the IOC would only be supported temporarily and forgotten about after 1992. But several factors-- the upcoming Olympics, euphoria over Mandela's release from prison, African nations' needs for the financial assistance from South Africa, and heightened European anticipation over integration-- contributed to the rushed acceptance of South Africa by the IOC and other sport federations.

### Snapshots of Unity

Jere Longman of the New York Times best states the role sport in South Africa has played in offering signs of unity to the world:

As South Africa emerges from international isolation, the most visible signs of international achievement and national unity are President Nelson Mandela's government and the success of the country's sporting teams (Longman, 1996, C1).

Victories and defeats in the backdrop of international competition provide misleading images of hope for integration in all aspects of society. "Sport is not a panacea for all social ills" (Rees, 1996, 29), and the victories of integration in the athletic arena have not always translated to racial victories in society.

A highly publicized moment which held several implications for South African sport's integration occurred in 1995, when the new democracy hosted the Rugby World Cup (RWC) Championships. South Africa beat New Zealand for the title, and President Mandela was on hand to celebrate with the nearly all-white team. Mandela was seen on TV and newspapers across the nation wearing the Springbok jersey and hat and holding the World Cup trophy. Images of the blacks' living martyr openly celebrating the symbol of white sport supremacy

sent a hopeful message to the world that South African sport was indeed integrated, if not physically, then in spirit.

There have been several other sporting victories since 1992 which are often attached to the RWC win and used to symbolize the building blocks of integrated sport and a new democracy. Elana Meyer, a white female distance runner, took second at the 1992 Olympics in the 10,000 meters to Derartu Tulu, a black Ethiopian. At the finish, Meyer, who was ecstatic after winning the first medal for South Africa since the country was banned, hugged Tulu, and they ran a victory lap together. It was a poignant moment-- black and white Africans hugging and celebrating-- which again offered optimism to those skeptics who doubted the legitimacy of the integration. In early 1996, Bafana Bafana, the national soccer team comprised mostly of blacks, won the African Nations Cup, the soccer championship of the continent. Another moment of national glory in the Olympics came when Josia Thugwane became the first black South African ever to win a gold medal when he won the 1996 Olympic marathon. The story of this tiny black man who worked in a mine and lived in townships until 1996 (Chadband, 1996, 2:16) became a popular one in Olympic lore, and sent the message to the world that South African sport was leading the way for desegregation.

These moments of sporting glory are misleading to those who have only a superficial knowledge of apartheid sport. The snapshots-- Mandela smiling in a Springbok jersey, the white and black Africans embracing on the Olympic track, the black national soccer team holding an international trophy, and Josia Thugwane on the gold medal awards stand-- do not necessarily reflect profound societal change. In reality, these are victories of a small number of elite athletes, who have had support and sympathy of powerful international federations and private funding. What has happened to the masses of younger athletes who have been deprived of facilities and expertise for so long?

### Inequality for Years to Come

Inequity is still a huge reality for the majority of the non-white populations. But balance in sport opportunities cannot be achieved without some steps toward equality in society. Denver Hendriks, professor of Human Movement Studies at the University of Western Cape, wrote, "We can, accordingly, never claim that the playing field has been 'leveled' in sport when so many other controls with explicit consequences for access to, and performance in sport continues to predominate" (Hendriks, 1993, 37). Living conditions, nutritional needs, education, and distribution of facilities must be improved before non-whites can achieve the same athletic success and knowledge of whites.



## CHAPTER IV

### SOUTH AFRICAN ATHLETICS HISTORY AND DISCUSSION

#### History

Although running, especially road racing, has been considered one of the least racist sports in South Africa, the athletics and running communities have not been isolated from the politics of the country. During apartheid, running organizations accommodated various racial groups and political interests. In the late 1950s, the South African Amateur Athletics Union (SAAAU), the dominant federation of white athletics, began forging a multi-racial athletics federation, which was also called SAAAU (Draper, 1963, 11). It consisted of the white, coloured, and black athletics associations. The white organization was clearly the most powerful group, and it protected its members' interests above all else. The two other groups, the South African Amateur Athletics Association (the SAAAA) for coloured military runners, and the South African Amateur Athletics Federation (the SAAAF) for black runners, were only offered provincial status, instead of being given posts with equal administrative powers (Archer, 1983, 277). This confederation became the governing athletics body for most South Africans competing in athletics. Although mixing in competition and training occurred frequently, each organization hosted separate national championships, and non-whites were frequently left off of international teams. Another organization, the South African Amateur Athletics Board (SAAAB), was founded by coloureds who were closely aligned with SACOS, the national non-racial sporting organization (Booth, 1998, 186). The SAAAB held its own national championships as well. Frequently, SAAAU members were not allowed to compete against the non-racial SAAAB members, and as a result, SAAAB was isolated from competition, and members' access to facilities was limited. The SAAAU was clearly the most dominant and organized of all the federations, due to the members' high economic status and greater administrative experience (see Appendix D).

After a lengthy suspension of South African membership, the International Amateur Athletics Federation (IAAF), officially banned South Africa and its athletes in 1976 from any competition it sponsored (Archer, 1982, 278). Included in the ban were athletes from any country who willfully competed against South African track athletes. Along with the ban came the fact that any mark achieved in South Africa or by a South African athlete would not be recognized by the IAAF. This was a substantial blow to many top runners who achieved world record times during the seventies and eighties, including Zola Budd, Mark Plaatjes, Elana Meyer, and Willie Mtolo. It is important to note that the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), the major ruling body of university-level sport in the United States, was not affiliated with the IAAF, and student-athletes from any banned country were allowed to compete within the NCAA. Many South Africans who could afford the expenses exercised the option to run at universities in the United States, thereby by-passing the effects of the IAAF ban.

In contrast to track and cross country events, road races generally allowed coloureds, blacks, and whites to compete shoulder to shoulder. According to Tony Longhurst, who was involved in running as a private agent, The South African Road Running Association (SARRA) has been a prime example of integrated sport throughout the apartheid era and in post-apartheid society (Longhurst, 1999). Jere Longman of the New York Times has called road running one of the most progressive sports in South Africa, and a sport that has been most reflective of racial demographics of the country (Longman, 1996, C7).

### Modern Logistics

South Africa holds provincial and national championships for track and field, cross country, half marathon, and marathon. Age group competition ranges from under-twelve to under-21 for juniors. Age 21 and over are considered seniors. There are also categories for masters (40-49) and veterans (50 and over).

In order to compete in any race in South Africa, one must belong to an athletics club. These running clubs are common in most towns in the country and are also responsible for hosting at least one race throughout the year. The clubs are privately owned and are usually sponsored by corporations or local businesses. The club system closely resembles the European running communities. The prominence of the clubs has made team divisions of South African road races highly competitive.

The United Schools Sports Association of South Africa (USSASA) also hosts competitions for athletics and cross country. There are provincial and national competitions for the schools, which are divided according to grade, for school children of all ages. In the past, most non-white schools could not afford to field teams or send runners to the competitions, and therefore the USSASA Championships were predominantly white. Although there is still a majority of white competitors in these events, the number of non-whites is increasing as more schools integrate.

### Comrades Marathon

The Comrades Marathon has been the most popular race in the country since its inception in 1921. It is a 52-mile road race in KwaZulu Natal between Pietermaritzburg, at the foothills of the Drakensburg mountains, and Durban, at the coast. The race was founded by Vic Clapham who sought the financial help of the "Comrades of the Great War" association, an ex-soldier organization to which he belonged. Interest and participation caught on, and the number of entrants has risen to 14,000 (Johnson, 1998, C5) since the end of World War II. Each year, the direction of the race alternates so that there is an "up" marathon one year-- which is run from Durban to Pietermaritzburg-- and a "down" marathon the next-- which travels from Pietermaritzburg to Durban.

It is the goal of most South African runners to do at least one "Comrades" in their careers, as the event is the highlight of the South African racing season. Race day is a national holiday, and spectators line the course with their grills and lawn chairs to watch and cheer on

the runners. To win a medal, runners must finish under eleven hours, at which point the finish line is promptly blocked. Seeing the lactate-filled runners help each other stagger the last meters of the course to break the tape before the cut-off is a unique display of true survival, humanity, and compassion. There are always those who do not beat the clock, and it is heartbreaking to see the agony in their eyes when the finish gun sounds and the blockades go up.

Non-whites and women were allowed to compete in the race "unofficially" until 1975 when the Collegians Harriers Athletics Club (the organizing body of the event) voted to include all people as official participants. The vote came after a strong protest movement the year before, and it illustrates that even road running, considered one of the more progressive sporting organizations in the country, did not have a racist-free record. In the first year of integration, "apartheid- minded officials not connected with the Collegians Harriers" (Morris, 1976, 240) required blacks to wear tribal armbands. As if wearing the armbands did not cause a big enough commotion, the officials did not bring enough Zulu bands, forcing some Zulus to wear bands of the opposing Xhosa ethnic group (Morris 1976, 240).

The amount of literature on the Comrades Marathon is comparable to the number of chronicles written on the Boston or New York City Marathons. Arguably the most well-known name in the marathon's 75 year history is Bruce Fordyce, who owns the record for the most number of wins-- he won nine times from 1980 to 1990. He is a national hero and a highly respected figure in the world of athletics. Sam Tshabalala became the first black man to win in 1989, and Frith Van der Merwe is a popular name on the women's side, due to her back-to-back record-breaking runs in 1988 and 1989. In 1992, the race opened to foreigners, who have flocked to the event. Legendary participants such as Alberto Salazar, Ann Trason, and Steve Cram have given it increased international recognition. The race has even been ranked among the top ten road races worldwide by the international Runner's World magazine (Beer, 1998). Part of its foreign attraction is the prize money, which is the largest of any ultra marathon in the world (Drew, 1997a).

Colleen DeReuck re-iterated the importance the country places on the Comrades when she said that even she, a two time Olympian and an SA Marathon champion, is not considered a "true runner" in her country until she has completed the Comrades Marathon (Johnson, 1998, C5). The Comrades is indeed a source of national pride and sacred to South Africans of any race.

### Mining and Running

While the Comrades has been the backbone of white running since the 1920's, the mining companies carved a substantial niche in the history of black running in South Africa. The mining companies sponsored their black workers' participation in road races all over the country. Company running clubs started as part of the effort by mine owners to create leisure activities for their non-white workers and as a method of advertisement (runners wore uniforms with their companies' logos). As the system developed in the early sixties, mines began actively recruiting the top black runners and gave them the easiest jobs so that they could spend more time training. The mines in the Transvaal provided the few quality athletics facilities offered to non-whites throughout the country. For many men who were good runners but too poor to support themselves, it was the only alternative for continuing their careers. Several runners who have won major international marathons were products of the mines, including Willie Mtolo, 1992 New York City Marathon Champion, David Tsebe, 1992 Berlin Marathon Champ, and Josia Thugwane, winner of the 1996 Olympic Marathon. Countless other top non-white runners during the seventies and eighties also came from the mining system. For the most part, it was a successful operation. However, after integration, better money-making opportunities opened up for the black runners. Subsequently, runners are able to obtain endorsements, earn substantial international prize money, and hire their own agents, mining teams have since lost prestige.

### Events of Impact

Since the 1970s, significant events in the South African running world have drawn serious attention from the international community. As discussed earlier, the ban on membership in the IAAF created a severe hindrance to runners' chances for improvement and international recognition. A second event of impact was the racial integration of the national cross country, marathon, and track championships, which occurred in 1978 and 1979 (Johnson, 1999). In cross country and marathoning, the face of the championships changed forever, as blacks have since dominated these events. Between 1980 and 1992, only one white runner won the SA men's marathon championships (Out of Africa, 1993, 90). Track maintained some of its segregation because most blacks did not have access to facilities. The more technical field events and sprints were, and still are, dominated by whites. Blacks still managed to do quite well in the distance events, even though they were not used to running on the flat, round surface. Even after integration of the national championships in the late seventies, racism was still evident as blacks, whites, and coloureds had to stay in different accommodations, use different locker rooms, and eat in different areas under apartheid law.

It was during this time of integration that a white runner named Johnny Halberstadt took a most notable political stance against the blatant racism of SAAAU. Halberstadt was an internationally accomplished and well-liked white runner who ran times which qualified him for the 1979 Springbok colours, the highest honor a South African athlete could achieve. He refused this award because the government would not issue a passport to Matthews Motshwarateu, a black runner who was also awarded the Springbok Colours and an athletics scholarship to the University of Texas (Kennedy, 1979, 6C). The government contended that Motshwarateu was a citizen of the Bophuthatswana homeland, and should obtain a passport from that "country." However, homelands were not recognized as countries by any other nation except South Africa, so a Bophuthatswana passport was meaningless overseas. The actions and words of Johnny Halberstadt, an NCAA champion and top South African road runner, made international headlines. It was the "hardest decision" of his life, but it spoke

volumes to the world about the state of athletics in South Africa. South African running was not as progressive as many officials were led to believe (Kennedy, 1979, 6C).

The plights of several South African runners over the past twenty years have also made bold statements about the need to improve the state of affairs in South African running. Sydney Maree, a black runner from Soweto, earned a scholarship to Villanova University in the mid-seventies and went on to win several NCAA championships and compete with the best in the world at the 800m, 1500m and the mile. His rags to riches story received a lot of press and informed the international running community of the atrocities South African citizens had to deal with. Mark Plaatjes, a coloured runner who obtained political asylum in the United States in the late eighties, was another highly successful athlete with a story that reminded the world of the unique struggles South Africans endured.

One female runner who sought to defy the limitations placed upon her as a South African citizen was Zola Budd. At the age of seventeen, Budd ran a world record time in the 5,000 meters. Only months after this accomplishment, which was not officially recognized, she obtained British citizenship so that she could compete, as a Briton, in the 1984 Olympics. Heavy scrutiny of her political position on apartheid followed. Apartheid groups like SANROC called her an "agent of apartheid" (Ban Zola Budd, 1986, 2) and a manipulator of laws that were implemented to prohibit exactly what she was doing. After the hype of the '84 Olympic Games, Budd continued to compete. Anti-apartheid activity all over the world surrounded her participation but was relatively more subdued in the following years.

The events preceding the 1988 World Cross Country Championships, which came in a year when significant political changes in South Africa were on the horizon, again raised international criticism of Budd's actions and of South African athletics' racist policies in athletics. Zola Budd was slated to compete for Britain at the championships in New Zealand. Kenya, the newly established distance running powerhouse, threatened to boycott, while several anti-apartheid groups in New Zealand planned imposing protests. The IAAF, fearing a disruption of its most prominent event, banned Budd under the auspices that it needed to

investigate an allegation that she had participated in a race in South Africa (Temple, 1992, 2:8), which was against IAAF rules. In fact, Budd was simply warming up on the course where a men's race was in progress (Budd, 1989, 148-50). The timid, apolitical runner withdrew her membership on the team so as not to jeopardize the other British runners. The incident was the last straw for Budd, who was tired of being a political pawn, and she retired from international competition shortly thereafter. The actions of Kenya, the IAAF, and Zola Budd re-introduced many questions about the equality of running in South Africa. Political debate resurfaced regarding the legitimacy of Budd's British citizenship and participation in the 1984 Olympics.

Although most runners thought little of their political roles, the actions of the individuals and the ruling bodies during the seventies and eighties created an inevitable link between athletics and politics in South Africa. The events that occurred helped set the stage for the massive transition that the sport experienced in the early nineties.

#### Re- admission

When sweeping changes took place in the South African sports world in 1992, the athletics organizations initiated major structural alterations. The condition for acceptance into the IOC and the IAAF was that all three racial athletics organizations-- the establishment SAAAU, the SACOS-affiliated SAAAB, and the South African Amateur Athletics Congress (SAAAC), which was formed by the National Sports Council (NSC) after 1990-- had to unify into one all-encompassing body. Eventually, in late 1991, the SAAAU and the SAAAC unified to form Athletics South Africa (ASA).

The SAAAB, which represented most coloured and Indian runners, vehemently refused unification. According to Reg Feldman, president of SACOS, regulations for unification were not met by the NSC and ASA. Additionally, Feldman and other SACOS affiliates felt rushing to send a team to the 1992 Olympics was a mistake. SACOS and SAAAB would rather have seen athletes of all colors receive quality coaching and facilities



over time. This would allow athletes of any race to be selected on merit. Quick fixes, like racial quotas, would never be needed if development took place slowly and thoroughly.

Opposition within the country disapproved of ASA's membership in the IOC and IAAF. Several black British track athletes, including Olympic medalists, Linford Christie and John Regis, led a movement which protested the fact that South Africa did not have to prove that the social situation had actually changed and was still included in all major international competitions (Powell, 1992a, 38 and Powell, 1992b, 36). In the end, ASA was accepted by the IOC, surprisingly in time for the Barcelona Olympics. The IAAF, on the other hand, temporarily invited ASA membership but did not offer them full membership due to the dissension of SAAAB (Powell 1992c, 44).

While the athletics federation had its troubles with unification, complete integration of road racing went quite smoothly. According to Bobby McGee, who is Colleen DeReuck's coach and has dealt extensively with the country's various running federations, SARRA was "the Rolls Royce sports organization in South Africa" (McGee, 1999). Although the body disbanded after unification and road running is now under ASA, many sport organizations in the country looked to SARRA as an example of successful integration (Longhurst, 1999). In his book examining race and sport in post-apartheid South Africa, Douglas Booth asserts that road running officials understood the dire need for black participation in order to "bolster" sport participation in general (Booth, 1998, 183). For years, SARRA opened its doors to black runners. Integration was relatively easy in road running because many blacks were the best in the country. To deny them the right to run would cause SARRA to collapse. Another reason integration in road running was easy was because the sport requires little facilities or monies. Unlike many other sports, including track and field, road racing had to overcome far less inequity in facilities and resources between blacks and whites.

### An Immediate Presence

South African athletes made an impact on the international running scene and on the South African sports world immediately after their inclusion. Their achievements were so powerful that John Brant of Runner's World dubbed 1992 the "year of the South African" (Brant, 1993, 85). The first major success of South Africa as a racially mixed team was the second place finish by Elana Meyer in the women's 10,000 meter run in the 1992 Olympics. About her victory lap with the gold medalist from Ethiopia, Meyer said they "did it for Africa" and that she needed "to do this for the whole of my country" (Goodbody, 1992, 1).

After this memorable August race, several black runners made the most of the new international opportunities they had been granted. Jetman Msutu became the second black man to win the Comrades Marathon; David Tsebe won the Berlin Marathon; Willie Mtolo was the New York City Marathon champion; and black South Africans finished first and second in the Taipei Marathon. Since that year, South African distance runners-- white and non-white-- have been hugely successful at major international events. Mark Plaatjes, the ex-patriot marathoner who gained American citizenship in 1993, won the World Championships Marathon in that same year. Colleen DeReuck currently holds the world records for 10 miles and 20 kilometers. Josia Thugwane and Hezekial Sepeng won gold and silver medals, respectively, at the 1996 Olympic Games. DeReuck, Meyer, and Plaatjes have been recognized as top road runners by the prominent American running magazines since 1993. The South African men took the team title in the 1998 World Half-Marathon Championships. Gert Thys ran the second fastest marathon time in history when he won the 1999 Tokyo Marathon. South Africa has even hosted large international meets, including the 1996 World Cross Country Championships and the IAAF World Cup meet in 1998. But not all is well in the South African running world. Criticism of ASA abounds, and many see the future of the running federation looking very grim.

### ASA Criticism

There are three main areas of concern for those scrutinizing the changes of ASA. The first is the criticism of the decision-making and organizational abilities of ASA. The second point of contention is the allocation of monies earned through increased sponsorships and endorsements. The final criticism is the demand ASA places upon its athletes to compete in certain meets in the country.

ASA is comprised of a chief executive officer (CEO), secretary general, president, and a vice president. It then has a council of representatives from seventeen athletics provinces and a board which presides over the track and field, road running, and cross country commissions. It also has created a development board and women's committee to address concerns of equality in the sport (See Appendix E).

The lack of organization of goals within ASA is often in question. For example, ASA has yet to organize cross country programs and competitions in rural areas and townships, where hidden talent abounds. Experts feel the future for South Africa's international running success lies in the underdeveloped townships and backcountry. The successes of international champions like Sydney Maree, Willie Mtolo, Hezekial Sepeng, and Josia Thugwane have proven this theory, so why does ASA not rush to tap the talents in the previously disadvantaged areas of the country (Drew 1997b)?

Another action which proves ASA's lack of focus in making decisions is the frequent altering of qualifying standards for major international teams. In the 1996 Olympics, track athletes' performances were fair except for medals from Sepeng and Thugwane. In reaction to these lackluster performances and possible international embarrassment, the ASA raised the requirements for qualification for the 1997 World Championships team. Not only were standards raised higher than those of the IAAF, but the increments of change were inconsistent across events. For example, ASA marked the marathon qualifying time at 2 hours, 14 minutes, which placed 145th in the world in 1995. However, the mark for the 1500 meters was adjusted to 3 minutes, 33 seconds, a mark which only eight people in the world

reached in 1995 (Drew, 1996). As a result of the sometimes stringent and arbitrary qualifying marks, South Africa had only one male distance runner (1500 through 10,000 meters) competing in the Championships (Drew, 1997b). Critics such as Tony Longhurst and Bobby McGee agree that the problem stems from the fact ASA is run like a business, and it is not doing things for the athletes.

The second point of scrutiny of ASA is its handling of money. Gwen Griffiths, an outspoken national champion and Olympian from KwaZulu Natal, is one of the few athletes who has expressed her feelings for ASA's improper allocation of funds. Griffiths stated in a 1997 Cape Times article that she feels Banele Sindani, ASA's secretary general, and Bernard Rose, the CEO, take more than they should from sponsorship commissions. Esteemed national coach, J.P. Van der Merwe, stated in the same article that Bernard Rose has "made nearly three million rand in commissions in three years and stood to make 3.9 million more over the next three" (Granger, 1997). By contrast, the thirty athletes who receive funds from ASA's development programs were paid 300 rand per month (about \$75) and received medical insurance and sportswear (Granger, 1997). Prize money for the national championships is also paltry, compared to the international road races' awards. The bottom line is that athletes are not seeing the money that the organization has accumulated during the past five years. Efforts to bring back the sport's popularity by increasing prize money packages, marketing tactics, and endorsements have not been implemented (Lombard, 1997).

In response to the lack of money they can receive by racing domestically, most of the top runners have seized opportunities to compete overseas, where prize money is better. However, in order to get any money and recognition from ASA, athletes must compete at certain meets in the country. This often becomes a difficult and expensive task because the South African competitions conflict with major international competitions or with related preparation time. Such lack of funds and high demands have caused a lot of resentment among athletes and coaches for ASA and its provincial affiliates.

The conflict of schedules is the third major recent criticism of ASA. Partly because it is in the southern hemisphere, South Africa's running season is "out of sync" with the rest of the world (Drew, 1996). Its major track events run through April, when the international track circuit is just warming up. An athlete wanting to maintain ties with ASA, should compete in the most important track events in South Africa, usually occurring in March and April. However, to support his or her career and to gain international recognition, a top South African distance runner will also want to go to Europe and the United States for their big meets in the summer months. Such prolonged periods of intense racing and training lead to injuries and sub-par performances. Michael Finch of The Weekly Mail and Guardian points out that the disappointing achievements of 1996 Olympic track and field squad are an indication of ASA's failure to meet the runners' needs when scheduling its main fares. The South Africa (S.A.) National Championships meet, the qualifying venue for Olympic team selection (except for the marathon), was held at the end of April in 1996. This left little time for the athletes to rest, train, and again peak for the August competition. Many athletes were nursing injuries by the time the Olympics came.

Proof of the scheduling disagreements is evident, in that several top athletes recently turned down ASA contract offers because they were required to appear in certain track meets in the country, namely the ones that have drawn large sponsorships (Finch, 1999). These agreements would have led to losses of income and training for the top South African runners, who find it necessary for their careers and finances, to focus on overseas races. Such lack of compromise for the needs of the country's best runners offers legitimacy to the criticisms of coaches and athletes across the nation. Few are willing to publicly scrutinize ASA for fear of losing a spot on the next national team or losing what little sponsorship money they can receive.

### Positives

Athletics South Africa has made some strides in its infant years. To ASA's credit, after the Atlanta qualifying fiasco of 1996, it moved its 1997 championships forward to the beginning of March, giving more time to rest for those who were lucky enough to qualify for the World Championships team. ASA's requirement of athletes to compete in certain domestic races shows it is taking an active role in increasing the popularity of the sport. Audiences and young runners want to see the country's best athletes compete on their home turf, and everyone knows that the presence of big names at sporting events encourages ticket sales, sponsorships, and overall interest.

Mark Ouma of The Sunday Times (Johannesburg) says that ASA has acquired several major financial sponsors, the largest being ABSA. This Afrikaner-based financial institution has made athletics its number one sponsorship project. Ouma reasons that a large and reputable institution like ABSA would not "throw its money down the drain" by sponsoring an organization which it perceived as unorganized and superficially unified. ABSA and others see that ASA is legitimate and will keep athletics in South Africa on track (Ouma, 1999).

### Clubs

While the road running clubs formerly under SARRA cannot provide the level of support and infrastructure that the elite athletes need, they are still useful means for many sub-elite runners to continue competing. McGee, Plaatjes, and other club organizers agree that the system has kept South African running afloat in recent years.

However, with the opportunities open for the best runners to now compete abroad, the focus has been taken off of the club and national competitions. Frank Poee, Abner Chipu, and Colleen DeReuck are prime examples of the change in focus. These three are top South African marathoners who skipped the South African National Marathon Championships this year in order to focus their training on the Boston Marathon, a more financially lucrative and internationally reputable event. They had legitimate chances to win the S.A. Championships,

but instead earned between \$18,000 and \$22,500 (Running Stats, 1999) by placing well at Boston. As a result of the decline in prestige of the national meets, the club system has also suffered. No longer are the clubs associated with the country's biggest names in distance running.

Along with the declining value in joining a club, the number of team competitions have also decreased. These are usually part of road races where members of the same club score as a team and are rewarded for beating other club teams. Once an integral component of South African road races, team competitions have been reduced partly due to the fact that the best club runners have begun migrating to professional running camps within the country. Erni Welch serves as the track and field representative for Rand Athletics Club (RAC), the largest running club in South Africa. Welch expresses that athletes from these professional camps dominated team competitions to the point where clubs stopped offering prizes for this category because the camp teams were stacked.

One positive change in the club system is the number of black clubs that have emerged since 1992. During the sixties and seventies, says Mark Plaatjes, black runners had to join white clubs. Blacks were ostracized by many who felt they were selling out to the racist policies. That attitude subsided as more and more blacks joined the clubs. Now, black clubs have been established all over the country. Willie Mtolo's club in KwaZulu Natal has been successful in attracting urban black runners. However, much like numerous other organizations in South Africa, many black running clubs do not possess the leadership expertise and financial backing that the white clubs can offer. The formation of the professional camps has also hurt the black clubs. As most professional runners are black, they leave the club to pursue the professional training once they reach a certain level (Welch, 1999). Black clubs have been well received in the post-apartheid era, but the organizations are still in infant stages and need time to develop and succeed.

The third change the clubs have seen is the emigration of whites from South Africa. Since whites have traditionally been the financial backbone of running clubs, their exodus has

hurt the clubs' overall profit. Says Welch, the RAC's membership has decreased from 3,300 runners in 1994 to 2,750 in 1999. He attributes some of this decline to the large number of whites who are leaving the country in search of better living and employment opportunities.

While the road running clubs have been the beacon throughout the storm of apartheid, they are not isolated from the problems of affirmative action. They too feel the effects of the new challenges which all runners face in the post-apartheid era.

### Conclusion

ASA has encountered a huge task in unifying the organizations of a popular national sport. It has made some positive strides in some areas, like fundraising, but has missed the mark in other areas, like development. Says Tony Longhurst, who has clashed with ASA on numerous occasions, "the only way to have real development [is to] go out and make it happen. The federation was never going to make it happen" (Longhurst, 1999).

In the distance events, many coaches and athletes feel the window of hope comes from private funds and the club system. Petrus Boukes, the reputable president of the Eastern Province Athletics Union and the chairperson of ASA's cross country commission, recently enticed corporate sponsors to finance cross country races in rural areas. With the help of ABSA, race participation in one rural cross country event in the Eastern Province went from 45 to 1281 young runners in one year (Drew, 1997b). Longhurst still believes that private funds are the only stable source of assistance for South African distance runners (Longhurst, 1999).

As mentioned earlier, the club system has remained stable throughout the changeover, largely because it lacks any political affiliation. For survival of the sport, the clubs offered extensive support to non-whites throughout apartheid. As non-whites became more mobile, more of them joined running clubs. Black running clubs, such as Willie Mtolo's Running Club, a club for young black runners in the Durban area, are also increasing in numbers (Longman,



1995, B15). Yet, Mtolo has said the main hindrance to improvements within his club is lack of funds (Mtolo, 1999).

Athletics has weathered many changes in the past 50 years. ASA and its regional constituents clearly have more difficult tasks in integrating than the road running branch of the organization. The overseeing bodies cannot implement all development programs they want because of lack of money. But distance running has continued to flourish under harsh circumstances.

## CHAPTER V

### PROFILES OF SOUTH AFRICAN DISTANCE RUNNERS

The four females and 17 males who were interviewed were elite and collegiate distance runners. They all grew up in South Africa and have competed, trained, and/ or lived in the United States. The collegiate individuals attended American universities and ran on the institutions' cross country and track and field teams. The elite runners, those who have run professionally, earned money in the United States by competing on the road racing and track circuits in this country. All runners' backgrounds and reasons for coming to the United States are narrated. Their most prominent achievements are listed.

Map one below is a modern map of South Africa and its neighboring countries. It indicates the birthplaces of the subjects, and in cases where the athletes still live in South Africa, the map displays their current cities of residence. Map two is a map of the United States. Many of the subjects reside in the U.S., and their places of residence are marked on this map.

#### Garth Akal

Born: 7 July 1972, Durban, KwaZulu Natal

Current residence: Godfrey, Illinois

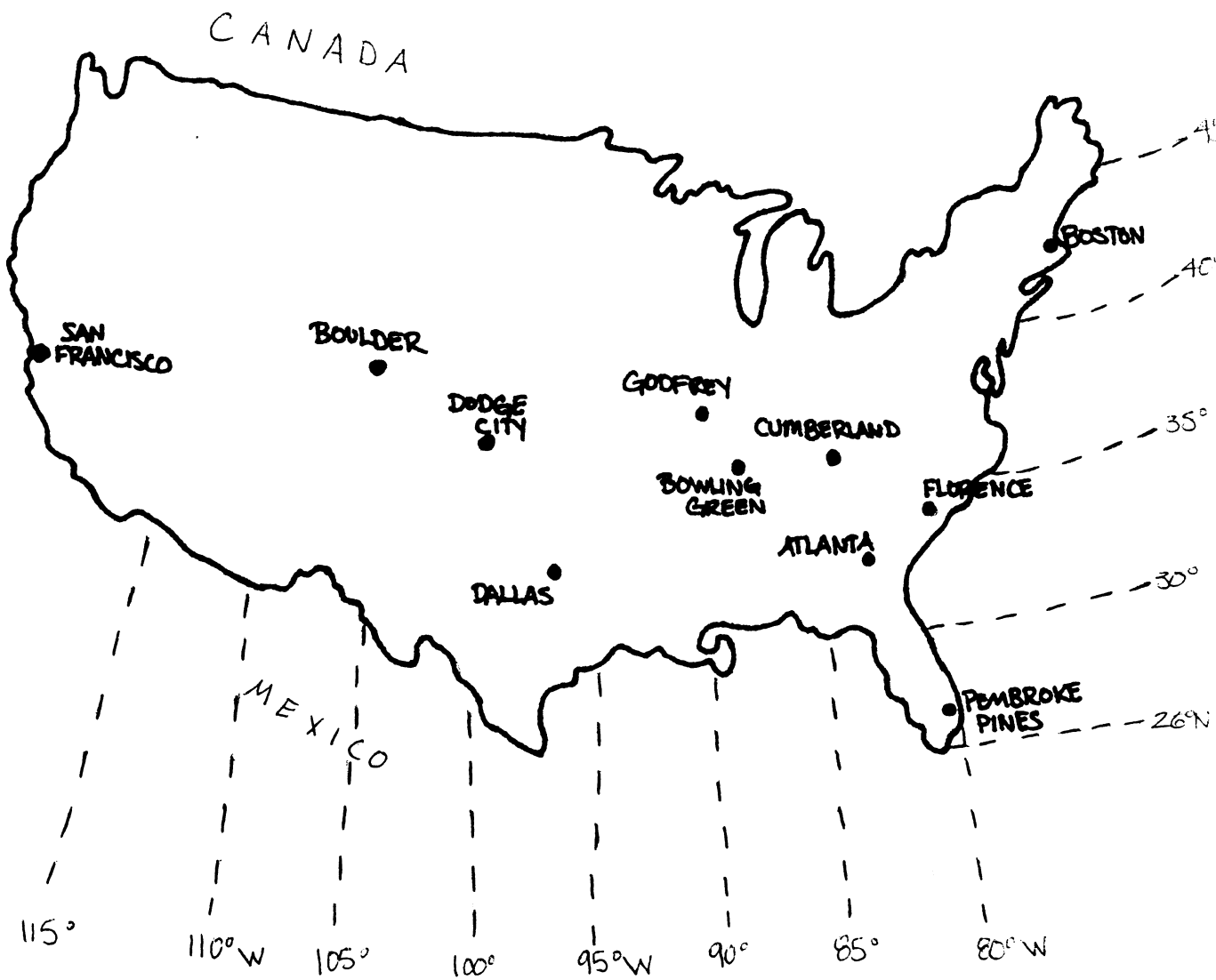
Garth Akal and his upper-middle class family lived in Durban where his father was in the retail toy business and his mother a homemaker. He has one younger sister. They are of English heritage. Mr. Akal began competitive running in primary school and continued to succeed. Akal attended Durban High School (DHS), which has a reputable sport program. He participated in several sports but concentrated on swimming and running during his second year of high school. He graduated in December 1990.

## MAP 1

SOUTH AFRICA AND REGION (1990-present)  
Birthplaces of Subjects



## MAP 2

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA  
Current Residences of Subjects

He considered swimming and running for an American university in the U.S. He sent out running and swimming "resumes" to seventy universities. Akal needed to choose a school which offered him a full scholarship. However, he could only find a full scholarship if he were to focus on running, and he acquired such a scholarship at Southern Illinois University-Carbondale (SIU-C).

Akal graduated from SIU-C in May 1995, with a degree in marketing. He now works as an account manager for an advertising firm in St. Louis.

**South Africa accomplishments:**

1988-90      S.A. Junior Track Nationals  
                  S.A. Senior Swimming Nationals  
                  S.A. National Biathlon Team  
                  S.A. National Surf Lifesaving Team

**South Africa best times:**

800m: 1:52              1500m: 3:55

**United States accomplishments:**

1992- 95      4-time Missouri Valley Conference champion, 3000m steeplechase  
                  All-conference cross country  
                  NCAA National Cross Country Championships individual qualifier

**United States best times:**

800m: 1:53    mile: 4:08    1500m: 3:49    3000m: 8:23    3000m steeple: 8:59

**Nick Aliwell**

**Born:** 23 April 1974, Boston, England

**Current residence:** Atlanta, Georgia

Nick Aliwell's family moved to Durban, South Africa when he was two months old. His father owns a shipping company, which provided an upper middle class lifestyle for the five Aliwell children. Mr. Aliwell attended New Forest Boys High School, an all-white English school, and graduated in 1991. He only began running during his junior year in school and achieved national success. Aliwell enrolled at the University of Witwatersrand in

Johannesburg, which is known for its strong running program. His running improved, and he was contacted by Sean Dollman at Western Kentucky University who offered him a scholarship to compete for the university.

Aliwell further excelled at Western Kentucky, becoming one of the most successful runners in school history. He graduated in December 1998 with a Graphic Design degree. Aliwell is now living in Atlanta working in sales.

**South Africa accomplishments:**

1992-93      S.A. Junior Track and Cross Country Championships  
Provincial Track Champion

**South Africa best times:**

1500m: 4:00      3000m: 8:31      5000m: 14:50      10000m: 30:55

**United States accomplishments:**

1994- 97      9-time Sunbelt Conference champion, track and cross country  
5-time NCAA National Track and Cross Country Championships,  
individual qualifier  
District III Cross Country champion  
Sunbelt Conference meet record, 1500m & 5000m

**United States best times:**

1500m: 3:43.9      3000m: 8:18      5000m: 14:00      10000m: 28:56

**Werner Botha**

**Born:** 31 January 1978, Witbank, Mpumalanga

**Current residence:** Pretoria, Gauteng

Werner Botha and his family lived in several places in South Africa but have spent the last ten years in Pretoria. His father was in the South African Air Force until 1994. The middle class family is of Afrikaner ancestry. He and his two brothers attended Walter Kloof High School, a public Afrikaner school in Pretoria. School was all white until government integration in 1993. However, very few blacks attended, due to the high academic standards.

Mr. Botha was exposed to athletics at a very early age, and he enjoyed national success in high school, running for Kloof High and Rentmeester Athletics Club. He attended the University of Pretoria for one year. Mornay Annandale, a South African assistant coach at Wichita State, pursued Botha after hearing about his success. Botha had always dreamed of earning a scholarship to an American university, and he enrolled in Wichita State University in January 1997.

South Africa accomplishments:

1995-96      S.A. Junior National Track champion , 800m  
                  Jean Hubert Cup International Schools Track Meet champion, 800m.  
                  World Junior Track Championships, 800m

South Africa best times:

800m: 1:48.90                      1500m: 4:03.62

United States accomplishments:

1998-99      3-time All-conference (Missouri Valley) indoor and outdoor track  
                  NCAA Indoor Track Championships, 800m  
                  Drake Relays runner up, 800m

United States best times:

800m: 1:49.14                      1500m: 3:55.00                      mile: 4:15.80

Ryan Clive-Smith

Born: 18 April 1973, East London, Eastern Cape

Current residence: San Diego, California

Ryan Clive-Smith and his older sister grew up in Durban, KwaZulu Natal in an upper middle class family of English background. He attended Maritzburg College in Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu Natal. Until 1991, black students were not allowed at the school. The prestigious college has a strong sport program, and Clive-Smith participated in a variety of sports, including track and cross country, for the school. Mr. Clive-Smith discovered his running talent at an early age. As he grew up, he gained great strides in his running, earning provincial and national honors.

When Ryan Clive-Smith was a junior in high school, Garth Akal, a rival who was one year older than him, encouraged the aspiring talent to pursue competing for an American university. Akal assisted Clive-Smith in the process of applying for visas, scholarships, and entrance exams. After extensive research, Clive-Smith enrolled in Kansas State University in 1992. He achieved several of the top times in the university's history and graduated in May 1997.

Mr. Clive-Smith is now a stockbroker in San Diego. He is sponsored by Mizuno shoe company and has enjoyed success in racing in the region.

**South Africa accomplishments:**

1989-91      S.A. Junior Track and Cross Country Championships

**South Africa best times:**

800m: 1:54      1500m: 3:52      3000m: 8:23      5000m: 14:42

**United States accomplishments:**

1992-99      NCAA National Cross Country Championships  
                  California Cross Country Series champion  
                  USATF Regional Cross Country Championships, champion  
                  Carlsbad 5K people's race, 3rd

**United States best times:**

3000m: 8:30.98      5000m: 14:28.40      10000m: 30:02.98

**Clyde Colenso**

**Born:** 11 May 1977, Johannesburg, Gauteng

**Current residence:** Dallas, Texas

Clyde Colenso and his older brother grew up in Weltevreden Park, Johannesburg in a middle class family. His parents are of Scottish and Spanish heritage. Mr. Colenso attended Krugersdorp High School, a semi-private English boarding school. The school allowed blacks to enroll, but they had to meet the same standards. Therefore, very few blacks attended. Colenso competed in several sports for the school, but his most successful sport was running.



Mr. Colenso started training with J.P. Van der Merwe, a teacher and coach at Krugersdorp. Van der Merwe has trained several successful South African middle distance runners, including Hezekial Sepeng, Olympic silver medalist in the 800 meters. After graduating from high school in December 1994, Colenso attended Tecknikom Witwadersrand, a two-year technical college, on a scholarship. He has been a national champion, ranked fifth among world juniors in the 800 meters, and has competed in the world junior championships.

At the world junior championships in Sydney, Australia, Mr. Colenso was approached by an American collegiate coach who suggested he pursue running at an American university. Colenso felt he could better further his international career within the NCAA. With the help of a coach whose son ran for Southern Methodist University (SMU), the successful runner sent out his running "resume" and earned a scholarship to run at SMU. He is majoring in economics and will graduate in December 2000. Colenso has achieved national success in the United States. He would like to continue competing in the U.S. and Europe and attempt to qualify for the South African Olympic team.

**South Africa accomplishments:**

1989-96      6-time S.A. Junior Track champion, 800 & 1500m  
                  Held S.A. Junior 800 meters record until 1998  
                  S.A. Junior Cross Country Championships, runner- up  
                  African Junior Track Championships, 800m  
                  2-time World Junior Track Championships qualifier, 800m

**South Africa best times:**

800m: 1:47.9      1500m: 3:50

**United States accomplishments:**

1997-99      NCAA National Track champion, 1500m  
                  5-time NCAA National Track Championships qualifier, 1500m, mile,  
                  5k  
                  2-time NCAA National Cross Country Championships, individual  
                  qualifier  
                  2-time Western Athletic Conference track champion  
                  SMU School record, mile run

## United States best times:

800m: 1:47.21      1500m: 3:39.07      mile: 3:59.19      5000m: 13:43.52

Likhaya Dayile

Born: 6 June 1974, Grahamstown, Eastern Cape

Current residence: Dodge City, Kansas

Likhaya Dayile lived with his grandmother and younger sister in a township in Grahamstown, Eastern Cape. He was raised in a lower middle class setting. Dayile's parents lived closer to their places of employment. His father is Xhosa, while his mother is Zulu. Dayile competed in road races before high school and was discovered by an athletics coach named Karen Zimmerman. Mr. Dayile lived with Coach Zimmerman in order to attend Trinity High School, an all white English school in Port Elizabeth, for two years. He sustained so much harassment from school officials that he transferred back to Grahamstown to attend the black Xhosa school, Nombulelo High School, after two years.

Dayile graduated from high school in December 1995 and worked and ran for two years. He felt running in the United States offered greater opportunity for quality training and regular racing than what was available in South Africa. He ran for Phillips University in Enid, Oklahoma on full scholarship . He enrolled in January 1998, and when Phillips closed down in May, Dayile transferred to Dodge City Community College. He hopes to run for a four year Division I university after he graduates in December 1999. After completing his collegiate competition, he plans to return to South Africa to begin training for international events.

## South Africa accomplishments:

1993-94      2-time World Junior Cross Country Championships qualifier  
S.A. Junior Track and Cross Country Championships

## South Africa best times:

3000m: 8:17      5000m: 13:58      10000m: 29:47

## United States accomplishments:

1998-99      5-time All-American (NAIA and Junior College), cross country and track

United States best times:

3000m: 8:35

5000m: 14:35

Colleen DeReuck

Born: 13 April 1964, Vryheid, KwaZulu Natal

Current residence: Boulder, Colorado

Colleen DeReuck was raised in Mandini, a rural area in northern KwaZulu Natal, formerly known as Zululand. Her father, an Afrikaner, was a buyer for a paper mill, while her mother, of Scottish descent, stayed home to care for Colleen and her three brothers. The children were active in sports, and because they lived in a rural area, they interacted and played with black children everyday. DeReuck's father was an avid runner, who has run the Comrades Marathon fourteen times (Bakoulis, 1999, 25). After graduating from high school in 1981, she was offered a partial running and academic scholarship at the University of Port Elizabeth (UPE). Her running improved, and after graduating from UPE in 1985, she trained hard and also taught physical education and geography for six years. DeReuck and her husband, Darren, were coached by Bobby McGee, one of the most knowledgeable and respected South African coaches.

When sanctions were lifted against South Africa's Olympic participation in 1992, Mrs. DeReuck qualified for the country's Olympic marathon team. After the Olympics, the DeReucks traveled to America to compete in the road racing circuit. They liked it so much that they decided to move to Boulder permanently. Since then, Mrs. DeReuck has had a child and has steadily improved her performance on the roads each year.

Being a full-time professional runner in the U.S., DeReuck and her husband, Darren enjoy a safer, more financially sound life in America. However, Mrs. DeReuck must keep in close contact with Athletics South Africa in order to remain in consideration for the country's national teams.

South Africa accomplishments:

1981-1992     S.A. Junior Cross Country and Track National Championships  
                  S.A. Senior Cross Country and Track National Championships  
                  Olympic Marathon (1992), 9th

South Africa best time:

marathon: 2:31

United States accomplishments:

1993-99     Berlin Marathon, champion  
                  Bix 7, Steamboat Classic, Nortel Cherry Blossom, and New Haven  
                  Road Races, champion  
                  Running Times Road Racer of the Year  
                  Runner's World Road Racer of the Year  
                  New York Marathon, 2nd  
                  Chicago Marathon, 2nd  
                  Boston Marathon, 3rd  
                  IAAF World Cross Country Championships, 5th  
                  Olympic 10,000m (1996), 13th  
                  World record holder, 10 miles & 20K

United States best times:

10 mi.: 51:16                      20K: 1:05.11                      marathon: 2:26.35

Sean Dollman

Born: 6 December 1968, Cape Town, Western Cape

Current residence: Florence, South Carolina

Sean Dollman and his middle class family spent ten years in Cape Town before moving to Durban and then to Rivonia, Johannesburg. His parents, both Irish citizens, are involved in banking. He has two younger brothers.

Mr. Dollman graduated from Sandown High School (Rivonia) in 1986. It was an English speaking institution and had a few of upper class blacks in attendance. Dollman was successful at the provincial and national level in cross country. He attended the University of Natal- Durban for one year before enrolling at Western Kentucky University.

Dollman made great strides at WKU, becoming an NCAA national champion. He graduated in 1991 and continued running for Nike International while remaining at WKU as

an assistant coach and graduate student. He won several major road races and qualified for five Irish national track and cross country teams.

Dollman is now the Associate Director of Registrar and Management Information Systems at Francis Marion University in South Carolina.

**South Africa accomplishments:**

1985-88      2-time Provincial High School Cross Country Champion  
S.A. Junior National Cross Country Championships

**South Africa best times:**

3000m: 8:45      5000m: 14:50      10000m: 30:50

**United States accomplishments:**

1989- 96      NCAA National Cross Country champion  
NCAA National Track champion, 10,000m  
6-time NCAA All-American, Track and Cross Country  
3-time member of Irish National Cross Country team  
2-time Irish Olympian, 10,000m  
Irish National champion, 10,000m

**Career best times:**

3000m: 7:53.91      5000m: 13:39.18      10,000m: 27:56.32

**Iain Don-Wauchope**

Born: 5 April 1975, Greytown, KwaZulu Natal

Current residence: Bowling Green, Kentucky

Iain Don-Wauchope grew up on a small farm in the Drakensberg Mountains where his parents, owners of a resort park, provided a middle class upbringing. Mr. Don-Wauchope has one brother and two sisters. His parents are of Scottish and New Zealand descent. Don-Wauchope was exposed to running by his father, who was an avid road runner and participated several times in the Comrades Marathon. Iain attended Maritzburg College in Pietermaritzburg as a boarder.

As he succeeded in school and national championships, he was contacted by Sean Dollman, an assistant coach at Western Kentucky University (WKU). Dollman, who grew up

in South Africa, offered Don-Wauchope a scholarship to run at WKU. Mr. Don- Wauchope graduated from Maritzburg College in December 1993 and enrolled in WKU in August 1994. He transferred to Oklahoma State after one year but returned to WKU in the fall 1996.

Don-Wauchope graduated in May 1999 with a degree in civil engineering.

**South Africa accomplishments:**

1991-94      S.A. Junior Track and Cross Country Championships  
                  Natal High Schools 3000m steeple chase record holder  
                  Natal High Schools champion, 1500m steeple, 3000m steeple, 1500m,  
                  and 3000m

**South Africa best times:**

1500m: 4:00              3000m: 8:34              3000m steeple: 9:21

**United States accomplishments:**

1995-99      5-time All-conference (Sunbelt)  
                  NCAA National Cross Country Championships

**United States best times:**

3000m: 8:30              3000m steeple: 9:16              5000m: 14:41              10,000m: 31:10

**Ashley Johnson**

**Born:** 31 December 1961, East London, Eastern Cape

**Current residence:** Boston, Massachusetts

Ashley Johnson lived in East London on a government agricultural farm with his parents, two sisters and one brother. His mother was a schoolteacher and his father was an agricultural officer on the farm. Mr. Johnson, of English background, attended Dale College Boys' High School in King Williams Town as a boarder. Running was always part of his lifestyle on the farm, which was heavily populated by black workers and farmers who ran. Johnson ran at the height of apartheid and experienced a great deal of segregation in competing.

In college, he ran under a more organized program and showed tremendous promise at the national level. Mr. Johnson graduated from college in 1979. To avoid mandatory service

to the military, he looked into studying in the U.S., and sought the help of Johnny Halberstadt, who attended Oklahoma State University in the early seventies. Johnson ran for four years at Western Kentucky University and then pursued a road racing career in America. He was sponsored by Etonic shoes, and in 1984, ran to second at the prestigious Peachtree Road Race in Atlanta, Georgia. Once his story got into the press, many federations began questioning the legality of his participation. Since his country was banned from any international competition, the IAAF pressured TAC, which sanctioned many road races in the United States, to ban Johnson from competing. While the legal battles ensued, Johnson was suspended for one and one half years.

After his suspension was lifted and he became an American citizen, he was able to run in road races again. He achieved the same standards as Olympic qualifiers, but could not compete for the U.S. (the IAAF had recently ruled one must be a citizen of a country for five years before they can compete for that country) or for South Africa, since it was still under boycott.

After finishing in thirteenth place in the 1996 U.S. Olympic Marathon Trials at the age of 35, Johnson retired from competition. He and his wife live in Boston where he manages a running store.

South Africa accomplishments:

1975-79      S.A. Junior Cross Country Championships, 5th  
                  S.A. Senior Cross Country Championships, 7th

South Africa best times:

800m: 1:53.3      1500m: 3:53.35

United States accomplishments:

1981- 96      2-time NCAA All-American, Track and Cross Country  
                  School records in mile, 1500m and Distance Medley Relay  
                  Runner's World Top 10 Road Racer  
                  Track and Field News Top 10 Road Racer  
                  Bix 7, Charlotte Observer 10K, Cooper River Bridge 10K, champion  
                  Peachtree 10K, 2nd

Falmouth Road Race, 3rd  
U.S. Olympic Marathon Trials, 13th

United States best times:

1500m: 3:38.66      5000m: 13:43.20      10,000m: 28:25      marathon: 2:15.10

Daryn Lambooy

Born: 27 September 1970, Johannesburg, Gauteng

Current residence: Atlanta, Georgia

Daryn Lambooy lived most of his life with his mother and stepfather in Randburg Sandton, a suburb of Johannesburg. He has one older sister and one younger, adopted sister. Both parents are of English descent, and the family lived in an upper middle class setting. Mr. Lambooy attended North Cliff High School, a public English school and graduated in 1989. The school did not allow black students, a policy which was protected under the apartheid education laws. He participated in organized sports for his high school and did not focus specifically on running until his last year.

Mr. Lambooy began his compulsory military service in January 1991, and it was here that he experienced greater running success. After his service, he worked for one year and lived with Nick Aliwell, a runner who was being recruited by Western Kentucky University. Lambooy enrolled at Southern Methodist University in 1994 and transferred to WKU in 1995. He became a graduate assistant coach during the 1999 track season and graduated from WKU in May 1999 with a degree in Hotel and Restaurant Management.

South Africa accomplishments:

1991 South African Defense Force Cross Country champion

South Africa best times:

3000m: 8:32      5000m: 14:40      10,000m: 30:45

United States accomplishments:

1995-98 4-time All-conference (Sunbelt), cross country and track



### United States best times:

3000m: 8:35

5000m: 14:51

10,000m: 30:45

Hendrik Maako

**Born:** 19 December 1970, Pretoria, Gauteng

**Current residence:** Boulder, Colorado

Hendrik Maako grew up in Soshanguve, a township in Pretoria. His parents are Sotho and provided a middle class upbringing for Hendrik, his two brothers, and one sister. Mr. Maako received a scholarship to attend Central High School as a boarder, a black boys' school taught in Afrikaans with a highly organized athletics program. He graduated in 1989 and worked for Impala mining company for eight months. Here, his main duty was to compete for the mine's running team.

Maako was successful in South African road races during high school and after graduation. He was approached by Philip Ryan, a South African runner at Western Kentucky, to pursue running for WKU. He accepted a scholarship to run at the university in August 1990. At that time under the international boycott, he saw this as his only opportunity to compete internationally. Maako graduated from Western Kentucky in May 1995 with a degree in Physical Education. Maako has since moved to Boulder to pursue a professional running career.

### South Africa accomplishments:

1988 S.A. Junior National Track and Cross Country champion

### South Africa best times:

5000m: 14:35 (at altitude)

10,000m: 30:05 (at altitude)

21.1K: 1:06 (at altitude)

### United States accomplishments:

1991-99

**8-time All-conference (Sunbelt), track and cross country**

## Sunbelt Conference 10,000m record

### Columbus Marathon, 3rd

Cotton Row 10K, 7th

## Philadelphia Half Marathon, 10th

Motorola Marathon, 10th

## United States best times:

5000m: 14:18          10,000m: 29:10          marathon: 2:21

Chaye Mathfield

Born: 7 June 1977, Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu Natal

Current residence: Bowling Green, Kentucky

Chaye Mathfield grew up in Pietermaritzburg with her older brother and younger sister. Both of her parents are employed in education and are of English ancestry. Mathfield began running in primary school, where she ran with the high school track and cross country teams to pass the time while waiting for her ride home. Miss Mathfield attended Pietermaritzburg Girls High School (GHS) partly because of its strong athletics program. She was successful at the national level both in track and cross country while running for GHS and the Collegian Harriers Athletics Club.

Although she graduated from GHS in 1995, Miss Mathfield attended high school in Missouri for one semester in 1996, where she was a two-time state track champion. After her experience in America, Mathfield decided to enroll in Western Kentucky in August 1997. She is currently majoring in exercise science and will graduate in May 2001. She would like to stay in the United States and either find a job or attend graduate school for exercise science.

## South Africa accomplishments:

1995-97          S.A. Schools Cross Country Championships, 9th  
                     Provincial Junior Cross Country Champion  
                     Provincial Junior Track Champion, 5000m  
                     S.A. Junior Cross Country Championships

## South Africa best times:

1500m: 4:49          3000m: 10:05          10,000m road: 39:00

## United States accomplishments:

1996-99          Missouri High School 2A State Track Champion, mile and 2 mile  
                     Member of conference (Sunbelt) champion team cross country, 12th  
    individual.  
                     Indoor conference track championships 5000m, 7th

United States best times:

3000m: 10:42          5000m: 18:20

Michelle Dekkers Maton

Born: 19 April 1968, Cape Town, Western Cape

Current residence: Pembroke Pines, Florida

Michelle Dekkers was raised in Cape Town in an upper class, Afrikaner family. Her father was a self-employed civil engineer and her mother was a homemaker for Michelle and her two brothers. Her father was a professional runner of national calibre during the sixties and seventies, when the country was banned from international competition. Dekkers began running track and cross country at an early age. She attended Voortrekker High School and was successful running both for the school and Bellville Athletics Club. Dekkers was coached by one of South Africa's great milers, DeVilliers Lamprecht. Her father, having competed against Lamprecht in the sixties, arranged this long distance coach-athlete partnership, and it proved fruitful for Dekkers' early career.

While on training runs with her father, Miss Dekkers often talked with him about continuing her career at a university in the U.S. When she graduated from high school in 1985, her father sold his engineering machinery, and he moved the family to Houston, Texas, where the running sensation enrolled at the University of Houston. Dekkers did not enjoy Houston, due to the team's unstructured and unfamiliar training program. After one unhappy year there, she transferred to Indiana University (IU), where her training more closely resembled what she was used to in high school.

Michelle Dekkers became a national champion while running at IU and created a name for herself by running barefoot at several national track and cross country meets. After graduating in 1991, she married former Eastern Illinois University standout, Jim Maton. She has attempted a few road races as an elite runner, but injuries and pregnancy have steered her interests. The Matons now live in Florida where she takes care of their four children.

South Africa accomplishments:

1980-85        S.A. Junior National Track and Cross Country championships

South Africa best times:

800m: 2:08                1500m: 4:25.02                3000m: 9:31.65

United States accomplishments:

1986-92        NCAA National Cross Country Champion  
                   5-time All-American, track and cross country  
                   5-time conference (Big Ten) champion, track and cross country  
                   Indiana school records, 3000m, 5000m, 10000m  
                   2-time Indiana Woman Athlete of the Year  
                   Honda Cross Country National Athlete of the Year  
                   Big Ten All-decade Track and Field Team

United States best times:

800m: 2:11.04        1500m: 4:25.39        mile: 4:38.21        3000m: 9:07.87  
 5000m: 15:53.12        10,000m: 33:25.00

Ephraim Mokghoku

Born: 18 May 1977, Soweto, Gauteng

Current residence: Dallas, Texas

Ephraim Mokghoku is a black South African who experienced a disadvantaged lifestyle living in a township in apartheid South Africa. His father was a taxi driver of Venda ethnicity and his mother a hospital midwife from the Sotho heritage. They lived in an area of the Soweto township, which was close to their work, while their son lived closer to the school with his grandmother and three cousins in a four bedroom house with no indoor bathroom or running water. As with most schools under the Bantu Education Act, Mokghoku's education was grossly inadequate. He attended an all black school taught in the Venda language. The school lacked structure and was riddled with crime. Mokghoku often walked to or from school because of the undependable busing system. His parents, although they did not live with him, were adamant that he still attend and receive what little education the school offered.

In the early nineties, Mr. Mokghoku's father came to own his own taxi service, and his mother received her nursing degree. His parents began receiving government subsidies and then moved into a nicer house in a safer location in Soweto. He graduated from high school in 1995. Under the urging of his provincial teammate, Clyde Colenso, Mokghoku attended Tecknikom Witwadersrand for one year after high school.

Colenso's parents encouraged Mr. Mokghoku to continue his education and running career in the United States. They contacted Rene Sepulveda, Colenso's coach at SMU, arranged for Mokghoku to take his entrance exams, and even helped finance his trips to and from the United States.

In January 1998, Mokgoku enrolled at SMU. He will graduate in 2001 with a degree in political science. He would like to continue training and competing in the U.S. after graduation. The Colenso's and Mrs. Mokghoku, Ephraim's mother, have since developed a close relationship due to their common interests in their sons' running careers.

#### South Africa accomplishments:

1991-97      S.A. Junior Cross Country Championships (placed 1st, 2nd, and 3rd in 3 years)  
                  IAAF World Cross Country Championships, 83rd  
                  All Africa Games 3000m steeplechase, 3rd  
                  World Student Games half marathon, 15th

#### South Africa best times:

3000m steeple: 8:59              10,000m road: 29:05              half marathon: 1:03.14  
 marathon: 2:30

#### United States accomplishments:

1998-99      Western Athletic Conference champion, 10,000m  
                  NCAA National Cross Country Championships individual qualifier  
                  NCAA National Indoor Track Championships, 5000m

#### United States best times:

3000m: 8:12.88      3000m steeple: 8:59      5000m: 14:05.20      10,000m: 29:13

Willie Mtolo

Born: 5 May 1964, Underberg, KwaZulu Natal

Current residence: Durban, KwaZulu Natal

Willie Mtolo and his large family lived in Kilmon Village in the Drakensberg Mountains of KwaZulu Natal. His father was a cattle herder for a white farmer and his mother was a homemaker. He has nine brothers and sisters and the family belongs to the Zulu ethnic group. His parents could not afford a car, and Mtolo walked sixteen kilometers everyday to and from school. In 1979, he moved to his sister's house in Durban to attend the Zulu school of Ksabazela High School. At school, he began running more seriously and began to win provincial competitions. He graduated in 1982 and pursued running full time.

Mr. Mtolo joined the Hillcrest Villages running club, which helped him buy proper running shoes and pay for entry fees. He started running long distances, marathons and ultra-marathons, but then began training for shorter distances (1500, 3000, 5000 and 10,000 meters). Mtolo was immediately successful at the shorter distances but at first did not receive respect for his accomplishments. He was accused of taking a short cut at one of his races and was turned down for the Springbok Colours, even though he achieved the qualifying times. For several years, Mtolo was at the top of the South Africa (S.A.) National Championships in cross country, track, and marathons. He also won several marathons in South Africa, even posting one of the fastest times in the world, and finished second in the Comrades in 1989.

When South Africa's sports boycott was lifted, Mr. Mtolo was free to compete internationally. His first American race was the 1992 New York City Marathon, which he won. With this victory, Mtolo became an international sensation-- having been the first black South African to win a major international competition.

Mtolo is still competing, although he has battled injuries since 1994. With his race earnings, he has started his own running club in Durban and is working to bring better track facilities and running opportunities to black athletes.

South Africa accomplishments:

1983-89      3-time runner-up S.A. Marathon National Championships  
                  2-time S.A. Marathon National Champion  
                  Two Oceans Marathon Champion  
                  Comrades Marathon runner-up

South Africa best times:

marathon: 2:08.15

International accomplishments:

1992-93      Rotterdam Marathon Champion  
                  Rotterdam Marathon runner-up  
                  New York City Marathon Champion, fourth fastest time in race history  
                  London Marathon, 8th

International best times:

marathon: 2:09.29

Zola Budd Pieterse

Born: 26 May 1966, Bloemfontein, Orange Free State

Current residence: Bloemfontein, Orange Free State

Zola Budd Pieterse grew up on a farm outside of Bloemfontein, an area generally heavily populated with Afrikaners. She had three sisters and a brother, although one of her sisters died when Budd was ten. Her father, originally from England, owned a print shop in town and then retired to the family's farm. Her mother is Afrikaner and was a homemaker throughout Budd's childhood. Budd attended an Afrikaner school and was coached by Pieter Labuschagne, the school's athletics coach.

From the outset of participation in athletics, Zola Budd was phenomemal. By the time she was sixteen, she was a national champion and already broke several provincial and national records. In 1984, at the age of seventeen, she ran a world record time in the 5000 meters, however the time was not officially recognized because she was South African. Shortly after this feat, Budd traveled to England and quickly obtained a British passport, making her eligible for the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics. Before leaving for the U.S., Budd

raced several times in England and endured constant badgering from the media, spectators, apartheid protesters, and a few fellow competitors. By the time the Olympics came, Budd's relationship with her father and her coach became severely strained.

In the highly publicized Olympic 3000 meter final, Budd went head to head with America's Mary Decker, who previously owned the 5000 meter world record which Budd broke. At the 1900 meter mark, Budd and Decker's legs became entangled and Decker fell off the track. Decker was carried away in tears while Budd faded to seventh place. Afterward, Budd tried to apologize but Decker bitterly refused to accept Budd's condolences. This dramatic incident marked Budd as a saboteur of American track and field's best hope for a medal.

Budd raced for two more years, and some of the public scrutiny died. Although she was urged several times to make a political statement against apartheid, Budd maintained that she was an athlete, not a politician and her stance was personal. Except for those in the elite running community who cared little about the political background of runners, she was forever linked by the press and activists as a representative of apartheid South Africa. At the age of 21, Budd retired from running, moved back to South Africa, and suffered severely from the psychological effects of such hatred and international scrutiny at a young age.

Budd married Michael Pieterse in 1988 and has three children. She began running again in 1990 and made the 1992 South African Olympic squad, although she was eliminated in the early rounds of the 3000 meters, due to health problems. She is still training and will possibly try to make the 2000 Olympic team in the marathon.

#### South Africa accomplishments:

- |         |  |
|---------|--|
| 1980-84 | 11 National records, junior and senior, track and road<br>15-time national champion, junior and senior, track, road, and cross<br>4 World junior track records (not officially recognized because of sanctions against South Africa) |
| 1991-96 | 1 World track record (unofficial because of sanctions)<br>1 African track record<br>3 National track records<br>South African Olympic teammember, 1992   |



### World Cross Country Championships, 4th and 7th

#### South Africa best times:

1500m: 4:01.81    mile: 4:23.38    2000m: 5:38.07    3000m: 8:35.72  
5000m: 15:01.83

#### International accomplishments:

1984-1986    3 World track records  
2-time IAAF World Cross Country Champion  
2 World Junior track records  
2 United Kingdom National Junior and Senior track records  
5 European track records, Junior and Senior  
Olympic 3000m (1984), 7th

#### International best times:

1500m: 4:00.79    mile: 4:23.14    2000m: 5:30.19    3000m: 8:28.83  
5000m: 14:48.07

### Mark Plaatjes

Born: 1 June 1961, Johannesburg, Gauteng

Current residence: Boulder, Colorado

Mark Plaatjes lived in South Africa during the height of apartheid. He and his family were classified as coloured. The family's house in Coronationville, the coloured district of Johannesburg, was often crowded with as many as sixteen family members. Mr. Plaatjes, who was the ninth of ten children, went to live with his older brother, Ralph, and his wife at the age of three. Ralph and his wife, Johanna, refused to let their young sibling be limited by the segregated education system, and they negotiated his way into a white high school and an "open" university, one that admits a limited number of non-whites (Longman, 1994, 26).

When Plaatjes was a senior in high school, he was dared to enter a 3000 meter track race, which he won. Under strict urging of his older brother, Plaatjes trained regularly and won several junior titles. He was encouraged by South African running greats, Bruce Fordyce and Johnny Halberstadt, to pursue a scholarship opportunity at the University of Georgia. Plaatjes attended for two years in the early eighties but returned to South Africa

when his father became ill and died. He then enrolled at the University of Witwatersrand, which had not only a strong athletics program but also an excellent medical school.

Plaatjes excelled in running and in his studies and became well known in South Africa and around the world. He had a regular column in the Johannesburg Star, where he often criticized racism in running and introduced discussion about the problem. He established a comfortable living and obtained sponsors for his running, and he earned the respect of athletes and administrators of several racial classifications partly because of his methods to promote racial tolerance (Brant, 1989, 70). Plaatjes and his wife frequently invited runners of all ethnicities to their house to show them that coloureds lived the same as everyone else. In 1987, Plaatjes ran one of the fastest marathons times in history. However, he still endured the daily rigors of being a coloured man during apartheid, receiving death threats, being chased on runs, and being called a collaborator because he was respected by whites. Mr. Plaatjes and his wife, Shirley, decided they did not want their young daughter to grow up in such an environment.

In 1988, Plaatjes, his wife, and their daughter, vacationed to Chicago and never returned to South Africa. Plaatjes enrolled in physical therapy school and with the help of agent, Glenn Latimer, he and his family were able to gain asylum. The accomplished runner won several U.S. marathons and became an American citizen in 1993, just missing competing in the Barcelona Olympics for this country.

The Plaatjes' and their three daughters live in Boulder, Colorado. The Plaatjes' own a physical therapy clinic where runners from all over the world come for treatment. They are also part owners with Johnny Halberstadt of a running store in town. Plaatjes has also been successful on the road racing circuit in the U.S. Although he is an American citizen he has kept in contact with South African runners and frequently houses up-and-comers who come to Boulder for a few weeks of high altitude training.

South Africa accomplishments:

1980-87          2-time S.A. Marathon National champion

3-time S.A. Cross Country National champion  
Johannesburg Marathon champion

South Africa best time:  
marathon: 2:08.58

United States accomplishments:  
1988-93      University of Georgia 10,000m school record  
                 Columbus Marathon champion  
                 Los Angeles Marathon champion  
                 World Championships Marathon champion

United States best time:  
marathon: 2:10.29

### Sibusiso Duncan Shangase

Born: 31 March 1976, Durban, KwaZulu Natal

Current residence: Bowling Green, Kentucky

Duncan Shangase grew up in KwaNyuswa, a township outside of Durban, in a low income setting. His family is Zulu. Like most township children, his main sport was soccer. When he was sixteen, Willie Mtolo, the Zulu who won the 1992 New York City Marathon, came to speak at M.L. Sultan Teknikom, Mr. Shangase's high school. Shangase was moved to seriously pursue running. Because the school's practices and meets were sporadic and unorganized, Mr. Shangase joined the Hillcrest Villages Running Club and met with other teammates on a bi-weekly basis. A year later, he joined Mtolo's new running club, aimed to help disadvantaged black runners. Because most runners in the club did not own a car, many times they would wake up at 4:00am on race day and hitchhike to a road race, arriving shortly before start time. Shangase's parents supported some of his entry fees, but he could not attend all races due to his financial situation.

When Mr. Shangase was nearing graduation in December 1996, he was contacted by Sean Dollman, the assistant track and cross country coach at Western Kentucky University. The provincial champion received an athletic scholarship to attend the school in January 1997

but needed more funds for travel and living expenses. He appealed to Mtolo who put his agent to the task of fundraising. After receiving help from several prominent white South African runners and KwaZulu Natal residents, including Comrades legend, Bruce Fordyce, Shangase obtained enough money to cover expenses. Although he is still struggling financially, he would not have been able to pursue this opportunity were it not for the help of several influential people. Shangase is majoring in computer information systems and will graduate in May 2000.

South Africa accomplishments:

1993-7            S.A. Junior National Championships Cross Country  
                      S.A. Half Marathon Junior Championships, 6th

South Africa best times:

1500m: 4:11    3000m: 8:50    5000m: 15:27    10,000m: 32:04

United States accomplishments:

1997-94-time All-conference (Sunbelt), track and cross country

United States best times:

3000m: 8:33                      5000m: 14:44                      10,000m: 31:07

Gareth Wilford

Born: 9 January 1975, Cape Town, Western Province

Current residence: Cumberland, Kentucky

Gareth Wilford grew up in Edenvale, a suburb of Johannesburg. His parents are of English descent and provided a middle class upbringing their three children. Wilford led an active, athletic childhood with his brother and sister. After attending a mixed English and Afrikaans elementary school, he graduated from Edenvale High School in 1992. While this English speaking school was not segregated, very few blacks attended. Wanting the best opportunity to excel in high school, Wilford ran for Germiston Callies athletics club and qualified for several junior national championships.

In his last year of high school, Mr. Wilford pursued the opportunity to run for an American university. Through a South African friend at Abilene Christian University, he was put in contact with Floyd Stroud, the head coach at Cumberland College. The small, religious atmosphere of Cumberland appealed to Wilford, and he accepted a scholarship to the school in August 1994. After achieving numerous milestones at Cumberland, he will graduate in December, 1999 with a double major in Business Administration and Physical Education. He would like to find a job in the U.S. and continue his career by competing on the road racing circuit here.

**South Africa accomplishments:**

1992-93          S.A. Junior National Championships, track and cross country

**South Africa best times:**

800m: 1:54.19          1500m: 4:01.79          5Kroad: 16:58

**United States accomplishments:**

1995-9          11-time NAIA All American, track and cross country  
                     Mid-South Conference Athlete of the Year  
                     3 school records, 3000m, 5000m, Distance Medley Relay

**United States best times :**

800m: 1:51.7          1500m: 3:44.34          mile: 4:01.69          3000m: 8:15

## CHAPTER VI

### ANALYSIS OF RUNNERS' STORIES

The diversity in the South African distance runners' stories is a unique facet of that country's running culture. By contrast, distance runners from Kenya or the United States have not had the variety in paths to success that is found with South African runners. The athletes discussed in this paper came from all types of cultural and economic backgrounds, and had varying degrees of success at the national and international levels.

For example, most of the best American distance runners, such as Frank Shorter, Steve Prefontaine, Craig Virgin, Lynn Jennings, and Bob Kennedy, were products of successful NCAA Division I cross country and track programs. Additionally, the Kenyans are unique in that distance running is an integral part of physical education and extra-curricular activity. Some of Kenya's top runners also went through the ranks of the NCAA, but many other male and female runners improved with the help of professional training camps in that country.

The South African school and university sport system is not nearly as extensive or inclusive as the U.S., nor are the professional training camps in South Africa as abundant as they are in Kenya. Therefore, South African runners looked to various other sources to further their careers. For example, Michelle Dekkers Maton corresponded with a national coach who provided training techniques and racing advice while in school. Likhaya Dayile attended a white boarding school 150 kilometers from his hometown in order to receive better coaching and competition. Many runners simply relied on their local running clubs to provide training tips. Zola Budd Pieterse, Ashley Johnson, and Mark Plaatjes became citizens of other countries in order to compete during the boycott. Still others, such as Josia Thugwane, Willie Mtolo, and Hendrik Maako, raced for the mining companies who paid their expenses and allowed them time to train. Many of the mine runners later joined professional camps and earned sponsorships once apartheid ended and their international careers flourished.

There were some common threads in the stories of the distance runners discussed in this paper that remained true to the socio-economic classifications of the segmented South African culture. However, there was also a high level of diversity in these tales which showed no identity to any specific social category. This chapter discusses the similarities and differences of the runners with respect to how and why they came to the United States and the challenges they faced in South Africa and America.

### Challenges

Those who competed during the boycott, the transition, and the democratic periods met a variety of challenges in order to compete. During the years of harshest international disapproval, those involved with athletics proudly considered themselves progressive because white and non-white runners were encouraged to train together. Johnny Halberstadt's refusal of the Springbok Colours made a statement to the world about the racism still prevalent in South African athletics. Standing up to the establishment athletics union at the height of his career earned him the respect of many South African athletes.

Ashley Johnson and Mark Plaatjes also went through tough times in the seventies and eighties. Both moved to America during the boycott in order to compete on the roads. After coming to America, Johnson and Plaatjes faced legal entanglements with TAC and the IAAF before they could race worry-free. Although most runners were supportive of them, they carried extra political baggage to high-profile road races. In fact, their treatment at these races was so varied that they often trained for certain competitions not even knowing if they would be allowed to participate.

Zola Budd's story was a similar example of the creativity South African runners used to defy the ban. Of the aforementioned people, Budd was the most well-known and was perceived as a white South African looking to cheat the system. Budd encountered severe criticism in the public, media, and even amongst some athletes. Budd raced under the British flag until 1988, when she stopped running because of the political turmoil that broke her spirit.

Mtolo, winner of the 1992 New York Marathon was one of the first black South Africans to win major international marathons since apartheid. Mtolo, who was deprived of many simple comforts while living in an apartheid society, "was broke, but one benefit of his poverty was the extraordinary shape he got into running twelve miles to work to save bus fare" (Drape, 1996). Other black athletes during this time faced similar hardships, and the compelling dichotomy of these dirt poor runners who began winning international races became common lore in the athletics media. Their stories gave eager readers glimpses of apartheid life, which was expected to soon be a distant memory.

There were athletes who were less interested in linking their running to the country's politics. Zola Budd became Zola Budd Pieterse in 1988 and returned to competition in 1992 as a South African. She found new fervor for racing in and for her native country. According to Pieterse, the press and fans were much kinder to her in this period and cheered her perseverance. However "a few lunatics in Europe" (Pieterse, 1999) still clung to the idea that she was a manipulative racist. Colleen DeReuck, Pieterse's 1992 Olympic teammate, said the former British citizen was the focus of most of South Africa's media coverage during the team's stay in Barcelona. Yet Pieterse was reluctant to place herself in the bigger political picture, stating, "I have always thought of myself as an athlete first and to hell with politics" (Pieterse, 1999).

Mark Plaatjes was another whose relationship with South Africa became more distant through his accomplishments during the transition period. Although most South Africans still saw him as their own, Plaatjes competed as an American after 1992. After ten years of being banned and five years of being stateless, the runner of mixed race won the 1993 World Championships Marathon wearing a USA uniform. In an article entitled, "My Dream Comes True," Plaatjes intimated that his victory was more personal than political:

Although I can never divorce myself from being a South African, I am an American now. . . I had waited so long for this [World Championships] day, and that it all worked out so perfectly makes me feel that the victory is a gift. It's one I'll always cherish (Plaatjes, 1993, 90).



For the first time in thirty years, South African runners' international accomplishments were recognized by official organizations. Their victories provided powerful images for the sporting world. Where Mtolo, Tsebe, and Meyer initially accepted their roles as symbols of hope for South Africans during the delicate transition years, Pieterse and Plaatjes were quick to separate their accomplishments from the political events in South Africa. As the new problems of South African running took shape, the hope-filled images of these runners' victories created misconceptions in the public's eyes that South Africa's integration process was thorough and painless.

The final generation of South African runners involved those whose careers flourished in the five years since the first democratic elections in 1994. These runners were relatively unaffected by not being allowed to compete overseas. During the ban, they were not yet ready to attempt international competition and therefore were not subjected to the intense media scrutiny of those who raced during apartheid rule. When they did improve to the next level, South Africa was already a welcome member in the international arena. The focus of concern for these athletes was in dealing with social changes in the country and the unstable athletics federation.

In the post-apartheid period, South African residents live in an extraordinarily violent society. According to The Economist, deaths from gun-shots in South Africa reached 11,000 in 1997. While this is still one-third of America's total, South Africa has only one-seventh of this country's population (Gun-free Dream, 1999). Josia Thugwane is one of many of the top black runners living in South Africa and experiencing the social dangers first hand. In addition to the public appearance obligations, there was a myriad of robbery attempts on these newly affluent non-white celebrities. In fact, as false rumors spread about Thugwane's numerous post-Olympic endorsements and financial windfalls, he received death threats from black mafia members upon his return to South Africa (Chadband, 1996, 2:16).

Colleen DeReuck, who is a South African citizen living in Boulder, continues to receive a small monetary supplement from Athletics South Africa. She must keep close

contact with the ASA bureaucracy in order to be considered for certain national teams. In attempting to remain on friendly ground with those officials in the newly unified federation, she contends with the many changes in policy and leadership.

Additionally, Clyde Colenso, a white South African who is still a student at SMU, will no doubt be considered for national teams. He will likely face ASA's new affirmative action policies that could arbitrarily decide whether or not he earns membership on certain national teams. In the years since the transition, Thugwane, DeReuck, Colenso, and others are challenged by a disorganized athletics federation and a society undergoing major restructuring.

The obstacles and efforts over the years that marked these athletes' multi-faceted stories transcend race, income level, and ethnic background. Yet, the runners had the common goal of advancing their careers. They felt they could achieve more by leaving South Africa and coming to compete in the United States.

#### White and Non-white

Although the diversity of obstacles ignored the runners' ethnic background and lifestyles, there were some tendencies which remained true to the social dividers in the country. With a few exceptions, white and non-white runners typically had different feelings about leaving and returning to South Africa.

Generally, non-whites who competed in the U.S. either as collegians or professionals, had more positive feelings about returning to their country of origin. Victor Ngubeni, a black who became an NCAA All-American in 1987, returned to South Africa after his career at Western Kentucky University came to an end. Duncan Shangase would also like to return to South Africa when he graduates. Willie Mtolo and many of the current top black elites have kept their training bases in South Africa, traveling to America only for certain races or for periods of intense altitude training. The non-white runners felt more ties to their family and country, which kept them closer to home. Additionally, they saw increasing employment

opportunities, since governments and corporations have been trying to get more blacks in the professional workforce.

It must also be considered that many non-white South Africans had a more difficult time adjusting to life in the United States. Some, were transplanted from a lifestyle of grotesque poverty and oppression to a culture of opportunity and freedom. Many non-white university students struggled with expenses while in the U.S. Their education and housing may have been paid for, but travel and other living costs still had to be financed. The language barriers were also a challenge for many non-whites. Although most learned English in school, they were not immersed in the language until coming to study at American universities. Finally, black South Africans with tribal backgrounds lived for years in a western society as third-and fourth-class citizens. In America, they were offered the same rights and opportunities as anyone else, and this notion could have been overwhelming.

There were exceptions to the trends encountered among non-whites' and whites' attitudes toward American life. Mark Plaatjes, who competed during and after the boycott, has lived in the U.S. for eleven years. When he came here in 1988, there was more opportunity for him to establish a physical therapy practice, own a running store, and of course to compete as an American. His large extended family is still in South Africa, and he has gone back for visits. But he sees the U.S. as a better place to raise his family and has no plans to return to South Africa permanently.

Additionally, Hendrik Maako is a black who has lived in the U.S. since he graduated from university in 1995. He continues to run here and travels to South Africa for family visits, but he too likes the American lifestyle.

There was a common thread among the whites who came here that separated them from their non-white countrymen and women. In all, the whites distance runners have stayed or plan to stay in the U.S. for long periods of time. Many married Americans or obtained jobs with American companies. They saw decreasing opportunities for their futures in post-apartheid South Africa, due to affirmative action-type policies which favor black workers.

Although crime was always high, it is now infiltrating white neighborhoods. Said Nelson Mandela, "criminals have been liberated to move into white areas, [causing the] "suburbanization of criminal violence" (Gordon, 1998). American society appealed to many white South Africans, as they saw a more secure place to live.

There were exceptions on the white side as well. White runners like Zola Budd Pieterse and Elana Meyer chose to stay in South Africa to train, even though both were internationally competitive runners. Werner Botha, currently a runner at Wichita State University, plans to return to South Africa when he graduates. With their economic status and high levels of success, they could afford the logistical cost of training in one country and frequently traveling to other continents for races. Interestingly, these three runners with strong bonds to their homeland were of Afrikaner descent. English South Africans appeared to be much less attached to the idea of returning to the country where they grew up.

The runners had varying degrees of loyalty to South Africa, and perceptions about their futures remained fairly true to color lines. With some exceptions, non-whites generally had strong ties, while whites were more willing to leave the country.

### Elites and Sub-elites

At what point in their careers did most of the subjects come to the U.S.? Several individuals came here shortly after completing high school in South Africa and stopped or plan to stop competing after university graduation. Another group of athletes also enrolled in university within a few years after high school, but they continued, or plan to continue, to compete internationally after graduating. The third group came to the U.S. only after they proved themselves at the national level in South Africa.

The athletes who have stopped or will stop competing after their collegiate careers were not looking to earn money by coming to the United States. Nor were they focused on racing against the best in the world. They sought to develop their promising careers under a system that was more supportive than what they could find for their level of competition in

South Africa. In the U.S., they found they could race against many people of their same ability.

There was another group of runners who also came to the United States after high school but continued running professionally after university. Johnny Halberstadt, Ashley Johnson, Hendrik Maako, Sean Dollman, and Ryan Clive-Smith continued running successfully after college. Gareth Wilford, Clyde Colenso, and Ephraim Mokghoku plan to continue once their university degrees are completed.

For the most part, these runners improved their times while running for universities in the United States. They made even greater strides post-collegiately when they began training and competing in the U.S. and Europe. Like their fellow ex-patriots, they found an overall better quality of life and competitive environment in the U.S.

The athletes in the above two categories could have been successful club runners in South Africa, so why did they leave? University sport is heavily supported by American society through endowments, sponsorships, tuition fees, taxes, and corporate donations. Training rooms, quality coaching, travel, race entry fees, and weight room facilities are offered to varsity runners free of charge in this country. While South African running clubs enthusiastically sponsor races and provide training groups of various ability levels, their efforts cannot compete with the vast network of intercollegiate sport in America.

The third group of runners were elites who came to the United States after already achieving national or even international success while living in South Africa. This group included Colleen DeReuck, Mark Plaatjes, Elana Meyer, Willie Mtolo, Zola Budd Pieterse, Josia Thugwane, and other recent champions. Also included was Johnny Halberstadt. Although Halberstadt excelled at Oklahoma State University and in American road races following graduation, he then went back to South Africa and continued running well. After retiring from running, he came to the United States in 1994 to settle permanently. Of this group who came over to take on international competition, only Plaatjes and DeReuck (and Halberstadt later in life) took up residence here. It is important to note that all of these

athletes were able to develop their running careers to the elite level in South Africa. There were, and are, enough competitive runners against whom they could race. It was not until they achieved times that ranked them among the top in the world, and they outgrew the domestic competition, that they decided to come to the U.S.

What were the main motivations for coming to the United States? The university students seeking to use their collegiate careers as springboards to better racing opportunities came for the universities' sports structures, not the education. They reasoned that if academics were their primary concern, they could have stayed in their home country. Although all the runners graduated and held a strong affinity for their universities, the value they placed in their education was secondary to the training, financial support, camaraderie, facilities, and competition they experienced while attending the institutions.

Because the elite runners came to this country later in their careers, they took more than just their running into account. Their families and financial opportunities also played large roles in their decisions to immigrate. Mark Plaatjes cited the fact that he did not want to raise a family in South Africa as his main motivation for settling here. Johnny Halberstadt developed several inserts for shoes and found patenting and marketing his product was easier in the U.S., and the selling opportunities were more lucrative. Colleen DeReuck moved to Boulder partly because she decided to become a full-time professional runner. Because she competed after the ban was lifted, she could have gone the route of Meyer, Mtolo, and Thugwane and stayed in South Africa leaving only to race. But she echoed Plaatjes' quality of life issue as a reason for settling here. She added that traveling to prestigious races was easier from Boulder than from South Africa. She lived only a few hours away from three major international marathons in Chicago, New York, and Boston. And she was never at a loss for training partners who live in the Colorado running mecca. Whether it was money from race prizes or potential business opportunities, the elites found that in this country, there was more money to earn in doing what they love.

### Conclusion

Many changes are occurring in South African running as society moves further away from the apartheid era. Although some differences separate athletes, the identities associated with being runners and South Africans created incredibly strong bonds among the athletes. This was evident in the relationships that cross racial and cultural lines. The differences in their backgrounds, when, why, and how they came to the United States meant little to these athletes while pursuing their goals in America.

As relationships in South African distance running transcend racial boundaries, so do the issues the running community has faced. During apartheid, the white-ruled SAAAU was instrumental in creating stark racial divides. However, most white and non-white athletes and coaches overlooked the bureaucratic divides and treated each other as runners, not political figures. With the formation of the unified athletics federation, those involved with South African running have seen a major shift in leadership and philosophy. While non-white runners have clearly been given more opportunity since 1994, the criticism and praise of Athletics South Africa bridges racial divides.

Over the years, South African distance runners have created their own niches and made great strides despite their situations. The success the runners have attained without any traditional, well-traveled path is most impressive.

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## APPENDIX A

Interview Questions for Elite Runners

1. When were you born?
2. Where were you born?
3. Where did you grow up?
4. What were your parents' occupations when you were growing up?
5. What would you say your income level was?
6. What is your ethnic background?
7. Do you have any brothers and sisters?
8. Were they athletes as well?
9. What type of schooling did you have? (English, Afrikaans, Zulu, Venda, public, private?)
10. Give me a timeline of your most prominent successes in South Africa
11. When did you start running?
12. When did you start focusing specifically on running?
13. Did you have any running role models who you aspired to be like?
14. As you competed, did you notice effects of apartheid in training and racing? Did you compete against blacks in races?
15. During that time, did you ever have the sense that the political situation would change?
16. When did you have the idea to go overseas to run?
17. Did you ever consider running for an American university?
18. What were your main motivations for going overseas? (competition, education, living standards, money, politics?)
19. When did you go overseas?
20. What avenues did you pursue to get you overseas?
21. Did you receive a lot of publicity in South Africa or America because you were going to run in the U.S?
22. How were you treated by the average track fan at home?
23. What kind of relationship did you have with the South African track body during 84-92? 92-present?
25. Do you deal with ASA now?
26. When you race today, are there still reminders of the challenges you faced during the ban?
27. Are you considered a role model for young runners? Do runners from all races admire you?
28. Do you still see apartheid in racing in South Africa? Has the face of track, cross, and road racing changed since 1992?
29. What were your feelings when Meyer got 2nd in the 10K in Barcelona and Josia Thugwane won the marathon in Atlanta?
30. What are the differences in challenges YOU faced to compete vs. challenges today's young runners face? Do they have it easy?

31. Is the trend of runners coming to the U.S (i.e. Good or bad? Growing or falling? More non-whites on the way? Blacks who have been able to succeed without U.S. organizations? What about those who aren't going to become elite runners? Where do they have to go)?
32. What are the major criticisms most runners have of ASA?
33. Do you have any desire to help ASA with administration/ consulting?
34. When do you think you will retire from competitive running?
35. What else have you always wanted to do besides run?

## APPENDIX B

Supplemental Questions for Zola Budd Pieterse

1. Were you exposed to any of the more political athletics figures in athletics?
2. What were your impressions of their actions?
3. How were you treated by the average South African track fan before 1984?
4. How were you treated by the South African press before 1984?
5. How were you treated by the average South African track fan after 1984?
6. How were you treated by the South African papers after 1984?
7. What was your relationship with the South African sports and athletics bodies while you were competing in the country?(e.g. did you deal with them only for competition matters; did they require you to appear in public; did they pressure you to take a political stance?)
8. What have been the major events in your life since 1992? (had kids, competition, coaches?)
9. When you returned to competition after the ban was lifted, what was the media's reaction, both in S. Africa and internationally? Was it kinder than during the 80s?
10. What were S. African track fans' reactions to your return?



## APPENDIX C

Interview Questions for Collegiate Runners

1. When were you born?
2. Where were you born?
3. Where did you grow up?
4. What did your parents do when you were growing up?
5. What would you say your income level was?
6. What is your ethnic background?
7. Do you have any brothers and sisters?
8. Were they athletes as well?
9. What type of schooling did you have? (English, Afrikaans, Zulu, Venda, public, private?)
10. Did you play sports in school?
11. Did your friends do the same sports as you did?
12. When did you start running?
13. When did you start focusing specifically on running?
14. Did you have any running role models who you aspired to be like?
15. Give me a timeline of your most prominent moments in your high school career.
16. As you competed, did you notice effects of apartheid even in sport?
17. When did you have the idea to go overseas to run?
18. What were your main motivations for going overseas? (competition, education, living standards, money, politics?)
19. When did you go overseas?
20. What avenues did you pursue to get you overseas?
21. Did you receive a lot of publicity in South Africa or America because you were going to run in the U.S?
22. What are some cultural differences you contended with?
23. Did/do you see yourself as part of a bigger political picture, representing a nation under so much scrutiny and analysis?
24. Why not stay and train in South Africa?
25. What are you planning to do when you graduate?
26. What have some of your South African running counterparts done since you left the country?
27. What are some of the problems university-age runners in South Africa face?
28. What are some of the improvements that track and field organizations have made in recent years?
29. Do you think that the trend of runners attending American universities will continue or will more runners stay in South Africa?

## APPENDIX D

South African Athletics Organizations: 1959-1991

SACOS  
(non- racial)

SAONGA  
(multi- racial)

SAAAU

SAAAB  
(mainly coloured and Indian  
members, but open to all)

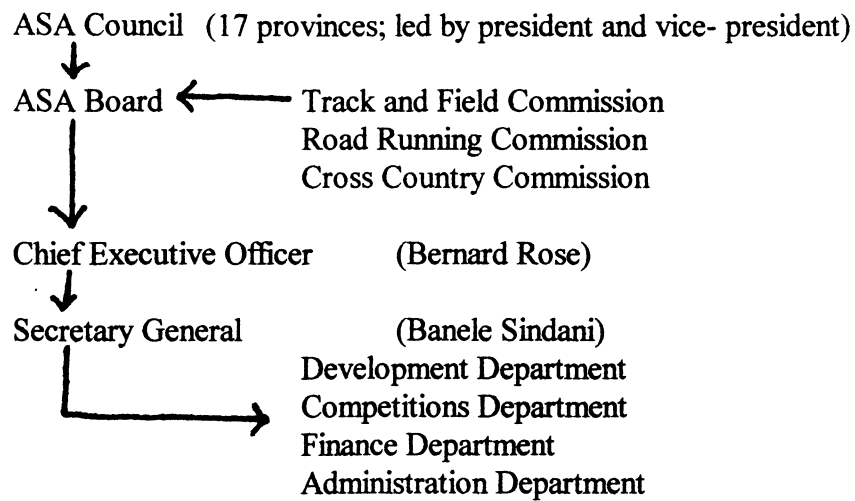
SAAAF  
(blacks)

SAAAU  
(whites)

SAAAA  
(coloureds;  
eventually  
disbanded)

Adapted from Archer, R. and Bouillon, A. (1982). The South African Game. London:  
Zed Press. p. 277.

## APPENDIX E

Athletics South Africa (ASA) Organizational Chart

Adapted from "About Athletics South Africa", [www.athletics.co.za/asa.html](http://www.athletics.co.za/asa.html). 1998.